

**Relationship Management in the Sales Organization:
An Examination of Leadership Style and Cultural Orientation
in Sales Manager and Salesperson Dyads**

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DEDICATIONS

“For unto whomsoever much is given, of him shall be much required...”
Book of Saint Luke 12:48 – The Holy Bible (King James Version)

To my parents, Robert L. Smith and Lura Babin Moore Smith, for having given me life and empowering me to affect the lives of others.

To my brother, Alvin M. Chapital, III, for having provided the strong stem from which my blossom could know the sun’s light.

I love you.

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- Brent A. Smith

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ABSTRACT

Relationship Management in the Sales Organization:
An Examination of Leadership Style and Cultural Orientation in
Sales Manager and Salesperson Dyads

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Trina Larsen Andras, Ph. D.

The sales organization is uniquely distinct from other organizations within the firm. Its members bear the firm's most direct relationship to commercial goals, such as revenues, profits, and market share. While organizational research has advanced our understanding of how structure, culture, and leadership operate towards the realization of those goals at the corporate level (Ouchi 1985), substantive gaps exist in our comprehension of those same factors directly within the sales organization. In particular, the extant literature generally fails to address to these factors in the context of sales manager-salesperson relationship dyads. Given that sales managers function as leaders of salespersons, the firm's primary representatives to customers, more research should be devoted towards learning how to they can optimize relationships with their subordinates. Amidst a recent wave of pressures, such as workplace diversity, job turnover, and global competition for talented salespersons, today's sales managers have been especially compelled to discern effective means to improve their interactions with their salespersons.

The research reflected in this dissertation builds on current knowledge and addresses critical voids within the sales management literature pertaining to structure,

culture, and leadership within sales manager-salesperson dyads. Underlying the general scope of the research is the notion that “Culture is a fundamental aspect of marketing phenomena, with increasing relevance in the global era” (Penaloza and Gilly 1999). This dissertation embodies a careful and pioneering synthesis of thought from the organizational sciences, management, marketing, and sales literatures. The research empirically investigates the role of culture and leadership in affecting relationships between sales managers and salespersons.

A few critical research questions are examined in this dissertation: (1) Do individual differences based on culture have an impact on sales manager and salesperson relationships? (2) Does leadership have an impact on sales manager and salesperson relationships? (3) Does leadership affect the influence of individual cultural differences on sales manager and salesperson relationships?

This dissertation advances the extant literature by presenting a model that uniquely considers the concept of culture in a three-fold manner, namely (1) within a single country, (2) within the sales organization, and (3) at the individual level within sales manager and salesperson relationship dyads. While dyadic research in sales management has generally focused on external salesperson and customer relationships, more complementary knowledge is needed in the area of internal sales manager and salesperson relationships (Yammarino 1997). This research model addresses past suggestions for new contributions that build on the importance of culture within the sales organization and enhance our understanding of interpersonal relationship between sales managers and salespersons (Jackson, Tax, and Barnes 1994). Additionally, this dissertation investigates the conceptual assertions of leadership’s role in affecting relationships and behaviors at the dyadic and individual level (Yammarino 1997).

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

“Let me give you an analogy; analogies, it is true, decide nothing, but they can make one feel more at home.”

Sigmund Freud, *New Introductory Lectures* 72 (1933)

“Generals are assistance of the nation. When their assistance is complete, the country is strong. When their assistance is defective, the country is weak.”

Sun Tzu, on *Planning A Siege*, *The Art of War*

The example of the military organization has provided considerable guidance for orienting the structure and management of commercial organizations. In such a context, one can allegorically characterize the sales organization uniquely from other organizations within the overall corporate body. Likening the military to the firm, one could suggest that salespersons allegorically fulfill the role of a military's combat soldiers, while most other employees fulfill the role of a military's non-combat soldiers. So, just as the performed effort of combat soldiers could determine whether the military achieves its goals of defense, destruction, or acquisition, the performance of salespersons could determine how effectively firms defend, retain, and grow market share. While other employees provide certain material resources and support towards the health and vitality of the market-driven organization, they can seldom be directly associated with the success of territorial campaigns.

Market Pressures on the Sales Organization

Sales organizations are challenged as never before to respond to a variety of pressures that affect the bottom line of their companies. For example, demographic changes have slowly added more ethnic, gender, and lifestyle diversity to formerly homogenous sales forces dominated by white males. Also, the persistence of high turnover in certain sales areas threatens the stocks and flows of highly competent sales persons employed by firms (Lane 1993; Traves et al. 1997). In addition, the market pressures within a down economy (e.g., recession) can compel firms to compete for the best sales talent in the employable labor market. At times, firms may even resort to “stealing away” sales employees from one another in an effort to enhance their own market share, achieve profit goals, or inhibit their competitors’ sales competence.

Other macro level issues have compounded the stresses on human resources agendas across sales organizations. One obvious example includes the growing level of international and global competition among companies. As foreign competitors have infiltrated local and regional markets, companies that were formerly insulated from geographically distant rivals must now struggle to achieve revenue, profit, and market share goals. Wotruba (1996) also points out that industrial sales organizations can be expected to undergo dynamic changes due to their evolving adoption of new customer orientations.

History also indicates that the “downsizing” or “right-sizing” phenomenon initiated by firms in the late 1980s has produced a legacy of career-focused versus company-focused sales employees (Garofolo 1996). When corporations in the late 1980s began to secede themselves from the *psychological employment contract* of lifetime employment guarantees, employees gradually responded with a more self-oriented ethic

of individual protection and prosperity. Referencing the military example, it could be said that, at times, sales employees operate like soldiers for hire on the open market. This alternation of foci signals added threats to sales organizations competing to retain their valued salespersons. Hence, firms must increasingly concern themselves with learning how to maintain effective relationships with their salespersons.

Need for Management Response to Market Pressures on the Sales Organization

In light of the above issues, we should understand that today's senior executives and sales managers are compelled to understand not only macro-level, but also micro-level issues related to salesperson commitment and effort within the sales organization. As a result, firms need to focus on understanding how their "lieutenant" sales managers can improve working relationships with salespersons as means to securing their commitment and effort, which, in turn, may yield stronger bottom-line performance.

Optimizing relationships between sales managers and salespersons is crucial since salespersons "operate at the boundary of a firm as critical participants in revenue generation" (DeCarlo, Rody, and DeCarlo 1999). For example, salespersons, unlike most other employees, represent the company's competitive élan vital in the market by providing information to customers, selling products, gathering market research, and processing competitive intelligence. As salespersons become less committed to or absent from the sales organization, the company may fail to achieve its desired objectives for revenue, profit, and market share. This realization takes on more importance as less satisfied salespersons tend to minimize their commitment to the company (Johnston et al. 1990).

Understanding the Sales Organization: Sales Manager and Salesperson Relationships

Researchers have suggested that more attention should be paid to studying intraorganizational issues related to sales management. Factors such as organizational structure, relationship dyads, culture, and leadership have been proposed as important areas for finding better ways to manage the sales organization (Bass and Avolio 1990; Hofstede 1980; Jackson, Tax, and Barnes 1994; Yammarino 1997).

The following elements of this chapter introduce the importance of culture and leadership as well as relationship quality and relationship effectiveness within the domain of the relationship dyad. These factors and related issues will be expounded upon in the literature review presented in the succeeding chapter.

Importance of Culture

Culture plays an important role in determining how people behave in the workplace (Hofstede 1980). Within the workplace, employees often interact with one another. How employees perceive and value one another may affect the manner, extent, and quality of their shared interactions. In the context of the sales organization, interactions between sales managers and salespersons can be especially critical, as compared to those within other organizational contexts, since they have greater proximity and relevance to the company's sales and profits.

While relationship research has generally focused on common demographic variables, such as age, gender, and race, this research expands current knowledge by considering the internal characteristics of employees related to their cultural orientation. Building upon the contributions of Hofstede (1980), Triandis (1975), Hall (1976) and

others, this research is based on the contention that culture plays a persistent role in employees' values, perceptions, and behaviors, particularly in dyads between sales managers and salespersons.

The argument for culture's relevance in sales research reasonably draws from the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm (Byrne 1971). While sales managers and salespersons operate together in working relationship, they do so as individual members of a group (dyad). Their individual cultural orientations condition their attitudes and behaviors in the workplace domain. Whether in domestic or international settings, differences in cultural orientation can create psychological distance between employees (Hofstede 1980).

Individual Differences: Similarity and Attraction

A primary conceptual foundation for this dissertation is the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm articulated some thirty years ago by Byrne (1971). The theory suggests that as relationship members realize shared similarities with one another they tend to demonstrate more positive attraction for one another. The bases of similarity may include physical appearances, gender, ethnicity, beliefs, values, attitudes, and other internal characteristics. Otherwise stated, individuals may regard themselves as similar to others according to perceptions of internal and external attributes.

One major basis of comparison between individuals is cultural difference. While culture can be more difficult to realize in comparison to other factors (e.g., demography, age), it still plays a significant role in how employees interact with one another. Culture is known to condition employees' attitudes towards, perceptions of, and responses to stimuli (Hofstede 1980). Hence, differences in culture may create psychic distance

between relationship members. Consequently, such distance can affect whether, and to what extent, relationship members are attracted to and like one another. Furthermore, psychic distance could compromise relationship quality, since relationship partners might anticipate difficulties in reconciling differences in values, priorities, role perceptions, communication styles, and other factors (Hofstede 1980, Hall 1976).

Individual differences between employees can create important psychological distance between employees. Consequently, this distance can lead to less frequent communication, less social integration, less organizational commitment, high withdrawal intention, and potentially high turnover. For example, O' Reilly et al. (1989) observed that individuals who differ demographically from others are least likely to integrate or be integrated in the group and are most likely to withdraw from the group.

Much research has substantiated and advanced the similarity-attraction hypothesis. For example, Tajfel and Turner (1986) provided evidence that employees routinely classify themselves and others according to basic social categories, such as age, race, and gender. Their research confirmed that these employees base their attractions to other employees by shared similarity in these categories. Additionally, Stephan (1973) found that individuals exude favor for members of their own referent groups, liked others, or similar others.

Furthermore, in their work on relational demography, Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) found that workplace relationships marked by similar demographic profiles are generally associated with less role ambiguity as well as more satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Importance of Communication

Communication is an important element within any relationship. Highlighting that importance, Mohr and Nevin (1990) characterized communication as “the glue that holds organizations together.” Since sales managers and salespersons interact within a defined organization with goals focused on revenue, profit, and market share, it is necessary to consider the role of communication. When examining the context of sales manager and salesperson relationships one “cannot separate culture from communication, for as soon as we start to talk about one, we are almost inevitably talking about the other, too” (Condon and Yousef, p. 34).

Importance of Leadership

Sales managers are charged with getting things done as they relate to the firm’s bottom line. Acting as a firm’s lieutenants, they often get things done by guiding the behavior of their subordinate salespersons. Their primary instrument for guiding salespersons is manifested in leadership (Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson, and Spangler 1995). Given that sales managers are individuals, they can be expected to favor particular methods, or styles, of leadership (Bass and Avolio 1990; Burns 1978). Since both sales managers and salespersons are involved in the relationship dyad, it is important to note that leadership styles can be construed from their each party’s vantage as leaders and followers (Agarwal et al. 1999).

Sales managers are commonly challenged to implement effective leadership in environments where they may be physically, socially, or psychically separated from their salespersons. These separations can produce strains on communication, trust, cooperation, and commitment in the sales manager and salesperson relationship.

Hence, sales managers should understand how espousing certain leadership behaviors can help mitigate or counter such strains and improve the quality of relationships with salespersons (Bass 1989; Bass and Avolio 1989). Consequently, by improving relationship quality, sales managers could affect positive outcomes, such as commitment, satisfaction, and performance (Tsui and O'Reilly 1994).

Importance of Relationship Quality and Effectiveness

Relationships between superiors and subordinates in sales organizations are expected to reflect individual differences between the two parties. These individual differences may emanate from external factors, such as race, or internal factors, such as culture. While sales managers cannot alter the presence of such differences, they may be able make interventions to mitigate their negative influences on their relationships with salespersons. As noted above sales managers are compelled to enhance or improve relationships as a means to keep salespersons more satisfied, committed, and productive. In short, this dissertation suggests that the leadership styles enacted by sales managers can affect the quality of their relationships with salespersons as well as the effort that those salespersons exact towards organizational goals. While this concept seems intuitive, few known research studies (Comer, Johnson, Dubinsky, and Yammarino 1995; DeCarlo et al. 1999) have examined how sales managers can improve relationships with salespersons by applying different leadership styles in the midst of individual differences.

Theoretically, the quality of workplace relationships has been linked to employee commitment (Tsui and O'Reilly 1994), withdrawal intentions (Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly

1997), and other behaviors. Clearly, these outcomes present negative implications for sales managers trying to achieve revenue, profit, and market share goals.

As sales managers are charged ultimately with the achievement of client acquisition, revenue generation, and the like, they are compelled to rely on the effort of salespersons whom they lead. Even in this hierarchical relationship of superior and subordinate, sales managers bear an onus to provide leadership that helps produce quality interaction with their salespersons. Hence, their elevated position may not afford them the ability to manage exclusively as they see fit. They may, in some cases, realize more auspicious relationships when they can apply leadership behaviors that are well suited to the individual relationships they share with different salespersons.

Purpose of Research

The main purpose of this dissertation is to understand how culture, leadership styles, and communication are associated with the quality and effectiveness of relationships between sales managers and salespersons.

The general position of this research resolutely contends that individual differences between sales managers and salespersons can affect their interpersonal relationships. Specifically, it posits that relational similarity within the sales manager-salesperson dyad influences the quality of relationships and, consequently, the effectiveness of relationships. However, this dissertation also contends that sales managers have some ability to intervene where differences exist. Specifically, it posits that sales managers' leadership styles and communication can moderate the influences of these differences on the quality and effectiveness relationships.

This study contributes to the sales management literature by synthesizing the sales, management, and leadership literature and examining three critically relevant issues related to sales manager and salesperson relationship dyads:

1. Whether, and to what extent do, individual differences affect relationships between sales managers and salespersons?
2. Whether, and to what extent do, sales managers' leadership styles (a) directly affect sales manager and salesperson relationships and (b) moderate the influences of individual differences on those relationships?
3. Whether, and to what extent do, sales managers' communication styles (a) directly affect sales manager and salesperson relationships and (b) moderate the influences of individual differences on those relationships?

Within the scope of these issues, this dissertation provides due emphasis and clarity on the following topics:

1. Relevance of the similarity-attraction paradigm, on the basis of cultural orientation, within the context of the sales manager and salesperson relationship dyad;
2. Efficacy of leadership styles towards influencing the quality and effectiveness of sales manager and salesperson relationships; and
3. Utility of communication in influencing sales manager and salesperson relationships.

This dissertation should also provide a more refined appreciation for how the similarity-attraction paradigm can be applied to understand invisible factors, with apparent outcomes that occur in the development, maintenance, and assessment of relationship dyads within various sales channels. In addition, it should produce a framework for discerning how leadership styles and communication can be effectively coupled to manage inevitable differences between sales managers and salespersons.

Contribution of Research

This research contributes to the organizational, marketing, and sales management thought by carefully substantiating the relevance of individual cultural orientation to the sales managers and salespersons relationship context. Therein, it highlights the influence that individual differences can have on salespersons' assessments of relationship quality with sales managers. Furthermore, this research reveals how sales managers' actions per leadership behaviors can resolve the influence of individual differences on relationship quality and, ultimately, relationship effectiveness. Notably, this study provides momentum to advance the notion that "Culture is a fundamental aspect of marketing phenomena, with increasing relevance in the global era" (Penaloza and Gilly 1999).

Organization of the Dissertation

The remainder of this dissertation is comprised of five additional chapters. Each of the five chapters is outlined in the following paragraphs.

Chapter Two presents an extensive review of the literature on intra-organizational relationships. Specifically, the chapter reviews relevant research themes in cultural orientation, leadership, and communication. Together, these three areas substantiate a case for advancing research associated with the similarity-attraction hypothesis (Byrne 1971) within the context of the sales manager and salesperson relationship.

Chapter Three outlines the research model and hypotheses for this dissertation. Integral concepts in culture, leadership, and communication are defined and related to

the quality of sales manager and salesperson relationships. Factors comprising relationship quality are also defined and related, in turn, to relationship outcomes.

Chapter Four describes the research design that will be implemented in this dissertation. In addition, it presents the methodology applied for the study, including outlines and explanations of the measurement instrument, sampling procedures, and step-wise procedures for data collection and analysis.

Chapter Five presents the empirical analysis applied to evaluate the research hypotheses in this dissertation. The statistical techniques performed are described and qualified. Data are described, characterized, and presented in summary tables and figures, where appropriate. The results produced for each hypothesis test are reviewed and discussed in detail.

Chapter Six provides a summary of the research performed in this dissertation. The key results and contributions are explicated in terms of the three key questions listed above. In addition, some research limitations are listed and described with appropriate detail. Finally, a summary of the main conclusions, implications, and suggestions for future research are discussed with regard to the three key areas listed above.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

This dissertation contributes to scholarly research by developing a framework for understanding how both culture and leadership operate between sales managers and salespersons. The dissertation advances current knowledge on culture by operationalizing the concept at the individual level rather than the macro level as it has been in the extant literature. The dissertation advances current knowledge on leadership by developing research propositions that consider its role in affecting salesperson outcomes amidst different cultural conditions. This research carefully integrates both culture and leadership to help scholars understand how both concepts are relevant to relationship management and outcomes in sales manager and salesperson dyads. Current knowledge related to the above issues is outlined in the following paragraphs.

Sales Organizational Research: Context of Relationship Dyads

The marketing and sales management literatures are relatively well stocked with studies that investigate dyadic relationships between sales representatives or frontline employees and external customers (DelVecchio 1998, Lagace et al. 1993, Tanner and Castleberry 1990, Crosby et al. 1990, Castleberry and Tanner 1986, and others). While researchers have captured the importance of relationships with external customers, the existing literature lacks a substantive body of work on internal relationships between sales managers and salespersons. For example, Churchill et al. (1985) found that only

scant attention has been given to understanding interactions between sales managers and salespersons. Moreover, up to 1985, only five studies that examined organizational factors including sales managers were discovered from the 75 prior years of research (Churchill et al. 1985). While lessons can be learned from salesperson and customer dyads, more study is needed in the context of sales managers and salesperson dyads. As Bass (1997) insightfully notes, “sales-customer interactions often taken place for shorter periods of time and are more focused on the goal of a transaction” (p. 20). Furthermore, salespersons are actual representatives of an organization having its own interests, objectives, and goals. By contrast, customers represent their own interests, which are often separate, if not divergent, from those of salespersons and their organizations (Bass 1997). While intuitive, these realities underscore the need for more research devoted to understanding relationship dyads between sales managers and salespersons.

Although several leadership approaches differ from one another, they all share one common basis – an implicit level of analysis, e.g., organization, group, dyad, or individual (Yammarino 1997). Issues related to level of analysis have become critical to understanding sales management today. Failure to examine different levels of analysis potentially neutralizes the ability of sales managers to develop effective programs for the selection, assimilation training, and retention of salespersons (Yammarino 1997). This dissertation focuses on the relationship dyad, a special case of groups, composed of two individuals who interact on an interdependent, one-to-one basis. The interdependence dimension of the relationship signals that each individual should be studied along with and exclusive from her/his counterpart. The hierarchy of the sales manager and salesperson relationship further qualifies the form of one-to-one interactions between both individuals. Intuitively, it suggests that sales managers have

some clear structurally oriented authority and leadership role over the salespersons in the relationship. Recognizing the importance of this dyad in the sales organization helps us learn how to observe individual behavior through figurative lenses (Yammarino 1997).

One Step Forward: Vertical Exchange Theory

Castleberry and Tanner (1986) provided one of the earliest theories specifically for the sales literature. Known as Vertical Exchange Theory, this paradigm focuses on the exchange relationship had by sales managers and their subordinates. It suggests that managers and subordinate employees develop relationships according to what is exchanged between them. The bases of exchange typically involve either party providing effort or resources that their counterpart could not achieve alone. So, for example, a salesperson may fulfill sales targets that help the sales manager reach a division sales goal, or s/he may handle orientation for new hires to smooth their transition into a high performing sales team. Alternatively, a sales manager may provide a salesperson access to a new, potentially large account or refrain from implementing a punishment for sub-par sales in an effort to maintain good relations or ensure future cooperation. It focuses particularly on the interactions of sales managers and salespersons that develop over time and with more experience. Vertical Exchange Theory stands out because it gives mutual regard to how behaviors of individual salespersons can affect sales managers vice versa. It does not assume that different subordinates respond alike to their manager's average behavior style. Rather, it contends each subordinate may form a different exchange relationship with their sales

manager based on the individual, idiosyncratic exchanges they share separate and apart from other subordinates having the same manager.

Before the development of Vertical Exchange Theory, sales managers were generally encouraged to adopt and apply an “average management style” for their entire sales force. Castleberry and Tanner (1986) and Churchill et al. (1985) advocated a movement for sales managers to recognize salespersons as different individuals having different needs, wants, and interests. In that light, they suggested that sales managers must consider tailoring their leadership styles to accommodate the different needs, wants, and interests of each salesperson in the sales force. While Vertical Exchange Theory moves researchers a step forward in recognizing the importance of sales manager and salesperson interactions, it presumes the existence of relatively tenured relationships between the two parties as well as a system of give-and-take for work done and rewards provided. As a result, it is limited in its ability to serve as a platform for understanding how basic individual differences affect salespersons’ perceptions of and responses to sales managers.

Despite the cited limits of Vertical Exchange Theory, it does provide a very useful platform for understanding and discerning how sales managers and salesperson interact with one another, whether in the presence or absence of other salespersons. This platform is relevant to this dissertation since it supports a focus on the individual exchange relationships that exist within sales manager and salesperson dyads.

Sales Organization

The sales organization, like many organizations in the traditional corporation, is comprised of a hierarchical management system. Within this system one finds the presence of vertical relationship dyads between sales managers and salespersons. This conventional method of hierarchical structure serves the intended purpose of organizing employees in such a way that they can achieve certain performance objectives (Ouchi and Wilkins 1985). Given that intended and actual performance often differ, it is important to examine the factors that can possibly support or inhibit the successful achievement of business objectives. Furthermore, as sales organizations demonstrate a proclivity to adopt hierarchical management systems, it becomes necessary to ascertain how ensuing vertically oriented relationships between sales managers and their salespersons can affect desired outcomes.

“Organizations are certainly very much in the business of creating categories ... [thus] it is quite likely that these categories, organizationally defined and institutionalized, order the social world, determine the contours of social comparison and interaction, and shape the pattern of reward allocations observed.” (Baron and Pfeffer 1990, p. 14)

This dissertation examines the sales manager and salesperson relationship in terms of its composition, character, quality, and effectiveness. It is suggested that relationship character per cultural orientation can influence relationship quality and, in turn, influence relationship effectiveness. Specifically, as sales managers and salespersons realize or perceive greater interpersonal differences, they may consequently realize less trust, commitment, and cooperation in their relationship. As a result, this relationship may lead salespersons to provide less performance effort to the sales organization.

In addition to the initial arguments, it is also suggested that certain leadership styles may affect the influences of relational distances on the sales manager and salesperson relationships.

One fundamental proposition in this paper is that individual differences within sales manager and salesperson relationships exist and are important. The bases of these differences, whether external or internal, can influence the nature of such relationships. The sociology and organizational science literatures have qualified the relevance of relationship differences. Specifically, this dissertation synthesizes pertinent work in social relationships, culture, leadership, and communication.

Social Relationships

Intrinsically, human beings are organic creatures that progressively evolve with the purpose of improvement. Generally, human beings can improve their condition by two methods, namely coordinated interaction and reproduction. Coordinated interaction is characterized by entering cooperative exchange relationships with others in order to achieve some desired objective (e.g., acquisition of specific resources) or goal (e.g., leadership). Given this need to improve in some direction, human beings have an innate need to be and/or interact with others (association and affiliation).

Ceteris paribus, individuals generally interact with other individuals in their environment. However, as individuals observe and perceive myriad differences among themselves, they generally choose to seek out individuals with whom they share more similarities. This concept is commonly known as attraction. Attraction refers to a feeling that compels individuals to want to learn about and interact with one another. In the midst of diversity, attraction may often serve as a prerequisite or enabler for

communication, liking, cooperation, and other forms of escalated interactions (Byrne 1969, 1971).

In light of the basic human drive to improve, individuals may adapt their priority for similarity. Factors such as the proximity and propinquity of other individuals can signal “common ground,” since individuals experience repeated exposure to one another. Nearer proximities necessarily reduce the amount of effort required to meet others and, hence, minimizes costs to locate appropriate (useful) relationship partners in a given environment.

Within the context of the sales organization, researchers have suggested that employers actively seek employees based on their congruence, or fit, with the organizational culture (Bowen, Ledford, and Nathan 1991). Theoretical and empirical research has supported the view that organizational relationships are most effective when members have well-aligned values, interests, and/or needs. In fact, research has also shown that individuals often prefer to interact with members of their own social groups (Stephan 1978). This preference signals, in part, a desire for some degree of homogeneity.

Sales professionals are neither above nor beyond this penchant for valuing a measure of homogeneity. Nevertheless, as the sales workforce becomes increasingly diverse in terms of demography, ethnography, beliefs, values, and cultures, sales professionals will be challenged to negotiate their work behavior in a way that balances their penchants against their real needs to manage relationships within a heterogeneous corps of sales employees. In light of these issues, this dissertation aims to make both theoretical and managerial contributions by examining the impact of cultural differences on the relationships of sales managers and salespersons.

The following sections discuss the relevant literature in the domain of work-associated relationships. The first addresses some salient fundamental aspects of existing thought on similarity and attraction. The second builds on the first by coupling the concepts of similarity and attraction with that of culture. The third section presents a review of key literature on leadership styles and communication. Together, both sections provide proper breadth and scope for this dissertation. Specifically, they frame the salient aspects of the sales manager and salesperson relationship domain as one marked by a complex system of behaviors stemming from personal values, perceptions, and expectations as well as the responses that may ensue.

Similarity and Attraction

A principal platform for this dissertation is the similarity-attraction hypothesis proposed by Byrne and Nelson (1965). The hypothesis formalizes a seemingly intuitive notion that individuals are more likely to be attracted to one another when they perceive greater mutual similarities. The basic premise of the similarity-attraction hypothesis holds that individual similarities, actual or perceived, serve as predictors for their attraction response (Byrne and Nelson 1965; Byrne 1971). The hypothesis operates from two notable assumptions: (1) Individuals interact with one another and (2) Individuals are attracted to one another according to their shared similarities.

The basis of the similarity-attraction hypothesis contends that attraction may be affected by similarities in perceived or absolute physicality, attractiveness, attitude, personality, values, age, race, and/or socio-economic assets. Aspects of social comparison theory (Festinger 1954) provide some complementary support for the similarity-attraction hypothesis. Generally, the theory contends that individuals are

motivated to assess their beliefs, opinions, and persona. In the absence of objective standards or means for self-assessment, individuals may seek out similar others who can help satiate their needs for consensual validation. This validation may come about via comparison one's self to others or receiving direct feedback from others. The bases of similarity can be social, cultural, and/or psychic. Underlying this concept is the view that individuals have more positive regard for the evaluations of similar persons.

Tesser (1995) qualifies the above paradigm with the self-evaluation maintenance view, in which he states that individuals will compare themselves to others according to how much they like and are similar with those others. Additionally, he suggests that close others (e.g., by liking or similarity) are more valued than distant others. Individuals also balance their regard for others according to the degrees to which they seek to: (1) view themselves as positive (self-enhancement), (2) confirm their own self-evaluations (self-verification), and (3) learn an accurate measure of themselves (self-assessment). Tesser (1995) holds that individuals demonstrate a proclivity for self-enhancement versus self-assessment. Hence, this provides more conceptual support for the view that individuals value more similar others more than they do more dissimilar others.

Synthesizing social comparison theory and the self-maintenance view, it may be reasonably contended that individuals generally value, seek out, and favor similar individuals. Within the business organization, it may be stated, then, that shared similarities are valued and initiate attraction. In turn, attraction may lead to trust, commitment, cooperation, and satisfaction within relationships (Campbell et al. 1988; Graham et al. 1988; Graham 1985a/1985b; Rubin and Brown 1975; others). Given the importance of similarity, it is important to understand the bases by which it may occur

within the sales organization. Towards that end, this dissertation focuses on individual differences in cultural orientation existing among between sales managers and their reporting salespersons.

Culture

The concept of culture has been the subject of much study within organizational research (Ouchi and Wilkins 1985; Hofstede 1980, 1984). Most research in the marketing and sales literatures has focused on understanding corporate organizational culture (Apasu, Ichikawa, and Graham 1987; Deshpandé and Webster 1989). However, little attention has been devoted to understanding the role of culture in the sales organization, separate and apart from the larger corporate organization (Jackson et al. 1994). Still, the limited extant literature on culture within the sales management has been predominated by studies that consider the broad context of the sales organization. Jackson et al. (1994) have suggested that because culture can potentially impact a variety of sales management areas, “a comprehensive examination of culture in a sales force context is needed” (p. 2).

Sales managers and salespersons are individuals that operate within the sales organization. However, sales management research has not duly considered the role of culture below the organizational level. That is, few researchers have actually examined how culture functions at the level of individual sales managers and salespersons.

Although industries have been moving towards consolidation and standardization of products, processes, and procedures in the globalized economy, culture and cultural differences still persists as relevant factors in how firms function and cooperate. Despite the debates among scholars and business practitioners about the

importance of culture, at least five decades of research on culture (Hofstede 1980; Hall 1976; Hall 1966; Benedict 1946; and others) continues to be cited by members of both contingents. Moreover, businesses operating internationally continue to enlist the talents of culture and communications specialists to improve their positions in other countries.

Another premise of this dissertation is that culture plays a particularly relevant role within the domain of employee relationships within the sales organization. The basis for this premise is threefold. First, individuals exhibit differences in culture -- values, beliefs, and attitudes with respect to themselves and their environment. Second, these differences can be observed and tabulated. Third, observed differences in culture can yield significant influence on the behavior of employees within the sales organization. Cameron and Freeman (1991) suggest that "Because cultures are defined by the values, assumptions, and interpretations of organization members, and because a common set of dimensions organizes these factors on both psychological and organizational levels, a model of culture types can be derived."

The three-fold basis for studying culture in the sales organization also finds support from the fundamental principles of Vertical Exchange Theory (Castleberry and Tanner 1986) that suggest individuals form relationships according to what factors they exchange. Culture is clearly an immutable factor of exchange. Moreover, research has established that organizations are the result of human behavioral factors (March and Simon 1958). Hall (1966) asserts:

"No matter how hard man tries, it is impossible for him to divest himself of his own culture, for it has penetrated to the roots of his nervous system and determines how he perceives the world ... people cannot act or interact in any meaningful way except through the medium of culture" (p.177).

It follows that culture can be discussed in terms of one's thoughts and one's actions. As Clark (1990) admonishes, "This is why interpretation is as important as measurement in the assessment of cultural phenomena."

Culture has been defined in myriad ways and characterized by as many frameworks. For example, some scholars contend that culture is a theory "for interpreting the world and knowing how to behave (Gudykunst and Kim 1984, p13). Hall and Hall (1990) contended that "Culture is a technical term used by anthropologists to refer to a system for creating, sending, storing, and processing information developed by human beings, which differentiates them from other life forms" (p183). Samovar and Porter (1972) suggested that culture "manifest itself both in patterns of language and thought in forms of activity and behavior. These patterns become models for common adaptive acts and styles of expressive behavior, which enable people to live in a society within given geographical environment at a given state of technical development" p3).

Underlying the various perspectives on cultural orientation is that each culture reflects a worldview, or set of values and beliefs, about individuals, groups, living, et cetera. As it takes careful wisdom to understand that differences exist between culture types, it requires as much wisdom to understand that differences exist also within culture types. Supporting this caveat, Hofstede (1980, 1994, 1997) has suggested that culture occurs at many levels, namely national, regional, religious, ethnic, gender, social class, generation, and organization.

This multiplicity of sources of cultural difference can potentially introduce challenges to characterizing, categorizing, and demarcating different culture types. In light of this fact, scholars have offered various approaches and frameworks for

understanding cultural orientations at the national, organizational, and individual levels, many of which are summarized below.

Cultural Thought and Frameworks

The formal study of culture from a management view is generally regarded to have begun in the 20th Century. Countless scholars and thinkers have attempted to describe and qualify the concept of culture; yet well over 500 definitions existed by 20th century (Kroeber and Kluckhohn 1952). Hence, a consensus remains to be achieved (Herbig 1998). In spite of these facts, however, many in the academic and professional communities have acknowledged several substantive contributions to the understanding of culture (see Exhibit 2.1). Most notably, the majority of cultural research has sought to assess differences between countries having geographic, territorial boundaries. This understanding has evolved over the last several decades and continues to be a subject of constant refinement.

Hair et al.

Hair et al. (1966) produced one of the earliest studies on cultural differences. Their research estimated that nearly 28% of discernable differences in management attitudes could be

EXHIBIT 2.1: SUMMARY OF COMMON APPROACHES TO UNDERSTANDING CULTURE

Author: <i>Edward T. Hall (1970s)</i>	<i>Geert Hofstede (1980/90s)</i>	<i>Schwartz (1980s)</i>	<i>Triandis (1970s-1980s)</i>
Context: - Country	- Country	- Country/Individual	- Country
Notion of: - Man's "total communication framework"	- Software of the mind - Collective programming of society	- Motivational types - Terminal and instrumental values	- Confluence of self, context, and information from the surrounding environment
Source: - Region - Ethnicity - Gender - Religion - Class Status - Work Organization	- Region - Ethnicity - Gender - Religion - Class Status - Work Organization	- Region - Ethnicity - Gender - Religion - Class Status - Work Organization	- Cognition
Taxonomy: - High Context Implicit, indirect, and encoded communication - Low Context Explicit, direct, and multifaceted communication	- Individualist v. Collectivist - Masculine v. Feminine - Power Distance - Uncertainty Avoidance - Short-Term v. Long-Term	- Power - Achievement - Hedonism - Stimulation - Self-Direction	- Idiocentric (Individualist) - Allocentric (Collectivist) - Tradition - Conformity - Security Definition of self, structure of goals, norms v. attitudes,...
Notes: <i>Common Applications of Perspectives</i> * Cross-Cultural Comparative Studies * Cross-Cultural Interpersonal Relationships * Basis of Culture: Country or Nation	<i>Reasonable Inquiries:</i> * Can culture exist in absence of these bases? * Is national culture manifested at individual level? * Can such orientations better explain individuals when studied at the individual level versus the national level?		

attributed to culture. They identified four principle cultural groups, including (1) Latin-European, (2) Anglo-American, (3) Nordic-European, and (4) Developing Nations. Not commonly cited, this research has been found to lack historical accuracy and requisite parsimony of analysis. For more commonly accepted views of cultural orientation tend to depart from rather simplistic geographically based characterizations.

Hall: High and Low Context Culture

Hall (1976) contends that culture is man's "total communication framework" (p42) and can be described in terms of context. Context reflects the communicated information, apparent and latent, that provides meaning to an event or experience. Context may be construed according to a high versus low dichotomy. In general, high context cultures communicate by very inexplicit means, often relying more on a mutually comprehended set of subtle, indirect, encoded messages. By contrast, low context cultures communicate by more explicit means, typically marked by gesticulations, vocal tones, and details. Within low versus high context cultures, some communication is required to familiarize people with identities, motivations, and desired outcomes for interaction. High context cultures versus low context cultures make clearer distinctions between insiders and outsiders. In addition, high context cultures generally expect more from individuals than do low context cultures. Further, high context cultures hold authority figures responsible for the behavior of subordinate members. Alternatively, low context cultures propagate responsibility for most matters across all members.

Hall, a cultural anthropologist, was among the earlier researchers who contended that nations could have different cultural mixtures, within their borders (Hall

1976). Using the example of Gauls, he suggested that it is not always possible to predict in what proportions high and low context cultures is manifested in a *mélange* environment.

Triandis: Individualism versus Collectivism

Triandis (1975, 1989) argued that cultures differ in the kinds of information that they sample from their surrounding environment. This information view shares some underlying similarity with Hall's (1976) contextual basis for differentiating cultures. Like many Western researchers, he devised a categorical approach to note distinctions between cultures. He held that each culture could be marked by degrees of *idiocentricity* and *allocentricity*. The *idiocentric* orientation is characterized by people who are relatively individualist (e.g. self-oriented) in nature, while the *allocentric* orientation is characterized by people who are relatively collectivist (e.g. group-oriented). Triandis' main point was that people comprehend and relate to psychological constructs differently according to the *allocentric* versus *idiocentric* orientation.

Triandis (1995) also helped revise current thinking on the individualism versus collectivism typological paradigm by encouraging movement towards a polyethnic framework. He contended that virtually any typology is an oversimplification. Therewith, he identified four cognitive attributes that may be universally applied to the individualism and collectivism constructs. These attributes included: (1) Definition of the self, (2) Structure of goals, (3) Emphasis on Norms versus attitudes, and (4) Emphasis on relatedness versus rationality. After measuring these attributes within each society, one could reasonably expect to capture the *mélange* effect (Hall, 1976) within a given society. In addition, such a *mélange* effect could distinguish different kinds of

individualist cultures and collectivist cultures. Hence, even individualist (collectivist) cultures can be differentiated from one another according to how members of each such culture exhibit varying degrees of cognitive elements. Otherwise stated, researchers can notice a mixture of cultural orientations with a given society. This possibility, underscores the need to develop more precise concepts of culture that are not bound by territorial borders.

Hofstede: Four Dimensions of Cultural Orientation

Hofstede (1980) compared several thousand employees in over 50 countries in a study of attitudes. He discovered that employees differed across countries, even as they performed similar jobs within the same firm (i.e., IBM). His research produced four well renowned dimensions of cultural orientation, namely (1) Power Distance, (2) Uncertainty Avoidance, (3) Individualism v. Collectivism, and (4) Masculinity v. Femininity. In later research, he added a fifth dimension known as Long-Term Orientation (Confucian Dynamism) (Hofstede and Bond 1990). The object of this approach was to reveal differences about the relative importance of each dimension for different countries.

Hofstede (1997) suggested that at the national level cultural differences are accounted for more so by values than by practices, while at the organizational level the differences are rooted more so in practices than in values. It follows that at the occupational level individuals might assume the values of the nation and adopt the practices of the organization. Organizational practices are the result of socialization at the workplace.

Power distance refers to the extent to which people accept or tolerate unequal distribution of power. It is often used to qualify the nature of dependence relationships. In the case of interdependence, emotional distance is very small, parties can readily approach one another, and communication is relatively open and frank. Alternatively, in the case of large power distance parties can either hasten to or reject dependence. Additionally, small power distance contexts are more results-oriented, while large power distance environments are more process-oriented.

Individualism-collectivism comprises the second dimension of national culture. *Individualism* characterizes contexts where desired relational ties are very loose, rather than tight-knit. Parties are generally expected to develop and support their own interests. In contrast, *collectivism* describes contexts where parties are expected or compelled to integrate into strong, cohesive in-groups. These in-groups provide protection and resources in exchange for uncompromised loyalty.

Masculinity-femininity comprises the third dimension of national culture. *Masculine* contexts tend to emphasize assertiveness, recognition, and competition. In contrast, *feminine* contexts tend to emphasize modesty, nurturing, cooperation, and concern for relationships.

Uncertainty avoidance refers to the manner and extent to which a party perceives threats from uncertain or unknown situations. It may be manifested by expressed needs for predictability, policy standards, and written rules. Weak uncertainty avoidance can be associated with a more open communication climate, while stronger uncertainty avoidance is characterized by relatively closed communication climates.

Short-term orientation characterizes contexts with a marked focus on the near past and present, with respect to tradition, reputation, and social obligations. In contrast,

long-term orientation refers to contexts that emphasize future reward, perseverance, and thrift.

Schwartz: Ten Motivational Types

Schwartz (1992) suggests that people's attitudes and behaviors are largely a function of the meanings and structures of their value systems. Stemming from the terminal and instrumental values of the Rokeach Value Survey, this group of research contends that the content of an individual's values can be separated into ten distinct types. Schwartz defines values in terms of ten motivational types, namely (1) power, (2) achievement, (3) hedonism, (4) stimulation, (5) self-direction, (6) universalism, (7) benevolence, (8) tradition, (9) conformity, and (10) security. This approach, like Hofstede (1980), is directed toward discerning meaningful differences between the relative importance of each dimension across different countries.

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner: 7-Dimensional Model

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) developed a model of culture based on over 50,000 cases of business managers from international, multinational, and global firms representing nearly 100 countries. They contend that cultures can be distinguished according to the manner in which they choose to consider, construct, and implement resolutions to problems and dilemmas. Seven basic dimensions are ultimately used to identify and characterize cultures. These dimensions are based, in part, on Parson's five relational orientations (1951) and include: (1) Universalism versus Particularism, (2) Individualism - Communitarianism, (3) Neutrality versus Affectivity, (4) Specificity versus Diffuseness, (5) Achievement versus Ascription, (6) Inner-

Directedness versus Outer-Directedness, and (7) Attitudes to Time. The underlying theme of the 7-Dimensional Model is that cultures are relatively similar in the dilemmas they encounter, yet they still differ in the resolutions they develop and enact. In addition, the model suggests that people may have different cognitions and behaviors depending on the situation or context thereof.

Donthu and Yoo: Towards Individual Cultural Orientation

The conceptualization of culture has taken myriad forms as presented above. While the diversity of perspectives has added to our understanding of culture, the construct remains “a fuzzy, difficult to define construct” (Triandis et al. 1986), reflecting the myriad problems that researchers encounter while trying to produce a comprehensible and defensible definition. The cultural orientation work of Hofstede (1980) has endured and earned the most popular support among all perspectives on culture.

Given a growing need to understand whether and how individuals can express cultural orientation, Donthu and Yoo (1997) modified Hofstede’s national framework of culture (1997) and produced a method of measuring individual cultural orientation. Applying their refined method in cross-national, cross-cultural consumer research, they found that individual cultural orientation influences a variety of behaviors including search strategy, product evaluation, waiting, and others.

While Hofstede’s five-dimensional model (Hofstede 1980, 1994) has provided a rich framework for understanding national cultural orientations, it does not allow for proper study of far lower level entities, namely individuals. Given that much of the modern world has been the subject of acculturation per war, conquest, conflict,

colonization, or territorial bequeathal (Padila 1980), it has become more difficult to affirmatively demarcate the cultural orientation of individuals within specific nations. Moreover, cultural mixing, transferring, and diffusing now occurs more frequently and rapidly per market forces like emigration and immigration (Cornelius, Martin, and Hollifield 1994), international trade (Costa and Bamossey 1995), tourism (Belk 1993), and diversity in the educational system and workplace (Hofstede 1994).

Culture has been substantiated as an independent variable that influences organizational values, philosophies, attitudes, and behaviors (Hofstede 1980). However, some assert that many studies work from deficient operational definitions of culture. Given the myriad definitions applied across disciplines, this would seem rather inevitable. One major criticism of the first level, or national, viewpoints on culture is that researchers have inappropriately assumed that culture can be duly characterized by national or country borders (Adler, Doktor, and Redding 1986; Nasif, Al-Daej, Ebrahii, and Thibodeaux 1991). Moreover, many researchers have suffered from the 'ecological fallacy' of inferring that particular individuals within a nation can be representative of the society's culture, given that many cultural scales measure societal differences at the macro level. As a direct consequence of using such scales, researchers cannot account for variation occurring at the individual level (Dorfman and Howell 1988).

In light of these conceptual issues, it becomes especially crucial to recognize and observe culture at the individual, rather than national or organizational level, when considering the context of sales organization. Moreover, as the body of knowledge on culture requires parsimonious consideration, an appropriate framework is required to capture its various dimensions.

Level of Analysis in Culture Research

Given the problematic issues of measuring culture in the sales organization and in a desire to contribute a useful framework for its important in sales manager and salesperson dyads, this dissertation adopt the Hofstede perspective on culture, but examines it at the individual level over per the adaptation of Donthu and Yoo (1998).

International and global trade present obvious reasons for studying cross-cultural aspects of sales management. Clearly, most international management encounters are cross-cultural. Given this fact, most organizational research has focused on culture from ethnocentric bases within a national context. However, few sales management researchers have dutifully acknowledged that “cross-cultural experiences are also possible within one’s home country” (Still 1981, p. 6). Many nation-states certainly include a plethora of examples that are contrary to rather homogenous view of pure national cultures.

“Immediately, we think of: the English and French cultures in Canada; the Flemish and Wallon cultures in Belgium; and the English, Afrikaans, Indian, Coloured, the Xhosa, Zulu, and Black tribal cultures in the Republic of South Africa. Within the United States, besides the mainstream culture shared by the “average” American, there are numerous microcultures functioning either within or on the fringes of mainstream culture – Appalachian, Black, Hispanic and Chicano, American Indian, and Eskimo, not to mention Louisiana French (Cajun), Pennsylvania Dutch, and many others. Other American microcultures consist of senior citizens, handicapped persons, criminals, and ex-convicts, members of the “moral majority,” and other passive and activist groups – some relatively stable, others of fleeting significance.” (Still 1981).

Sales executives, among others in within the firm, often fail to notice and understand their own predispositions to interpret people of the world in an ethnocentric context (Still 1981). It follows that those same executives may fall victim to self-perpetuated consequences of managing people according to ethnocentric perspectives

rather than special cultural considerations. The latter approach has become more important in the workplace due to the rapid diversification of sales force across industries (Comer et al. 1998).

Cultural orientation reflects the general underlying persistent disposition of an individual (Hofstede 1997). Since this research is focused specifically on comparing the utility of personal cultural values, the terms *national cultural orientation* and *individual cultural orientation* are used to reflect a conceptual parallel for these two modus operandi. Hofstede (1997) asserts, "Using the word 'culture' for both nations and organizations suggests that the two kinds of culture are identical phenomena. This is incorrect: a nation is not an organization, and the two types of culture are of a different nature" (p. 181). This research adopts a similar logic as motivation for the present study: the individual is clearly neither a nation nor an organization. Hence, it becomes important to understand how individuals, regardless of their national origin, express culture.

The dimensions of cultural orientation should be examined at the individual level in the case of workplace dyads, such as the sales manager and salesperson relationships. In other words, cultural diversity should be understood beyond the country unit. Advancing this notion of cultural diversity within a single country or region, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) declared that etics do not supply emics:

"In the course of our research, it has become increasingly clear that there are at several levels as many differences between the cultures of the West Coast and East Coast America as there are between nations" (p. 7).

Given that today's workforce experiences geographic shifts induced by changing employment opportunities, pursuit of educational advancement, and other factors, it would seem only reasonable to expect some confluence of cultures not only between regional coasts, but also between individuals from different geographic areas.

Hofstede's (1980) view of culture and consequent five dimensions of culture has been criticized as being culturally biased since the majority of the original survey reflected Western values (Ralston, Gustafson, Elsass, Cheung, and Terpstra 1992). Clearly, this allegation has validity, which would be difficult to dispute. Nevertheless, the Hofstede approach to understanding culture has become the most widely accepted basis of cultural study in management, marketing, and international business research. Gerstner and Day (1994) offer the reasonable argument that no matter what view of culture is adopted, it is "impossible to conceive of a 'culture-free' taxonomy" (p. 124). Given its departure from largely geo-centric classifications (Hair et al. 1966), which afford very limited potential understanding of cultural differences, the Hofstede (1980) approach to offers a portfolio perspective (i.e., five dimensions of culture). Furthermore, no alternative cultural taxonomy exists that has the support of empirical data from many different countries.

This dissertation relies on Hofstede's (1980) multidimensional taxonomy to cultural orientation, given its historical stamina, reasonable integrity, and widespread acceptance. In light of the dyadic level of analysis, however, the dissertation adopts Donthu and Yoo's (1997) approach to those dimensions as a more appropriate means to glean individual reflections of cultural orientations between sales managers and salespersons.

Leadership

Leadership is among the most important factors in superior and subordinate relationships (Bass and Avolio 1990; Castleberry and Tanner 1986; Burns 1978; Graen and Cashman 1975). Through leadership, sales managers can have positive, neutral, or negative influences on their salespeople. Amidst other dimensions of the sales manager and salesperson relationship, sales managers' chosen leadership styles affect a range of salesperson job-related responses, such as satisfaction, motivation, and performance (Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1979).

A well-accepted range of conceptual articles in sales management has outlined different forms of leadership styles (Bass 1997; Bass and Avolio 1990; Dubinsky et al. 1995; and others), models of leadership (Yammarino 1997), and models of supervisory sales behavior (Castleberry and Tanner 1986). Sales management researchers have also tested different models of leadership (Busch 1980; Butler and Reese 1991; Comer et al. 1995; DeCarlo et al. 1999; Dubinsky et al. 1995; Hite and Bellizzi 1986; Kohli 1985; Tanner and Castleberry 1990).

Bass (1985) contends that too much sales management research has made couched assumptions that managers apply transactional leadership in their organizations. The preponderance of these assumptions is somewhat understandable given that sales control, compensation, motivation, promotion systems are generally established around a transactional perspective. Nevertheless, more research is needed to examine others areas of leadership in sales management. Given the human focus of today's workplace, one worthy alternative is transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio 1989; Burns 1978). The contrasts and values of transactional ethics versus transformational leadership are discussed at length below.

Definition of Leadership

The last three decades have been marked by several contributions in the area of leadership theory and practice. By 1974, over 3000 empirical studies were recorded in the domain of leadership (House and Baetz 1979). The concept, definition, and characterizations of leadership have been contested and debated since the dawn of the 20th Century. Terry (1986) reports that the scholarly and professional communities have accepted at least 100 definitions of leadership. Generally, these definitions have attempted to summarize leadership in terms of traits, behaviors, attitudes, interaction patterns, and so forth. Regardless of myriad descriptions of leadership, it can basically be defined as the process of directing, influencing, and controlling the work-related activities of employees (Stoner and Freeman 1992) as well as to affect employees' motivation to achieve specific organizational goals (Robbins 1991; Bass and Avolio 1979; and others).

The most well received, renowned perspectives and theories on leadership are described in the following paragraphs. These approaches to understanding leadership can be approximately summarized as the trait, behavioral, power-influence, contingency, and transformational/transactional approaches (House and Baetz 1979; Yukl 1981).

Theories and Styles of Leadership

For centuries scholars have attempted to determine and qualify what characteristics comprise leaders and leadership. An innumerable quantity of perspectives has arisen to provide a parsimonious definition of both terms.

Trait Theory

The first major theory of leadership is trait theory. Trait theory came about near the turn of the 20th century. This perspective was well received until the middle of the 1950s (Schriesheim and Neider 1989). The main premise of the trait theory of leadership is that individuals can be classified dichotomously as leaders or non-leaders. The defining bases of the classifications were linked to an individual's personality. This basis would imply, in large part, that people are born to be either leaders or non-leaders. While trait theory provided some listing of notable leader traits (i.e., intelligence, enthusiasm, honesty, dominance, and perseverance), it is limited in terms of outlining salient traits of effective versus ineffective leaders per different conditions.

Behavioral Theory

The trait theory of leadership was followed by behavioral theory. Behavioral theory shares similarities with trait theory per identifying a set of characteristics (behaviors) pertaining to leadership. Taken collectively, these leadership behaviors could be construed as work-centered and people-centered leadership styles (i.e., autocratic, bureaucratic, and participative). Similar to trait theory, scholars identified various leadership styles, but did not outline the most effective styles per different conditions.

Power-Influence Theories: Vertical Dyad Linkage and Leader-Member Exchange

Some theorists characterize the leader-follower relationship as an exchange-based hierarchical relationship, where leaders exert some top-down influence on their followers. Otherwise stated, a leader-follower relationship can be referred to as a

vertical dyad linkage (VDL). The nature of this relationship is believed to evolve over time as dyad members perform their own roles and influence the roles of their counterparts (Dansereau, Cashman, and Graen 1973; Dansereau, Graen, and Haga 1975; Graen 1976; and Graen and Cashman 1975). At least two assumptions apply for this theory. First, organizational members (employees) should report to the same superior and be relatively similar as constituents of a single group. Second, leaders should behave in relatively similar manner toward all reporting subordinates.

Scholars of the power-influence view argue that leaders exert influence upon their followers according to particular bases of power French and Raven (1959). Advocates of this view suggest that whether and to what extent leaders can influence subordinates depends upon the existence of the leader's power bases, specifically reward power, coercive power, referent power, legitimate power, and expert power.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) represents a spin-off from VDL theory by suggesting that for each subordinate one distinct leader-member dyad exists (Graen and Cashman 1975). Hence, as leaders develop roles in tandem with each subordinate, differentiated role definitions will ensue. Subsequently, differentiated leader-member exchanges will exist for each distinct leader-member dyad. LMX theory posits that leaders will tend to foster close relationships with relative few employees and maintain more distant and functional relationships with all other employees (Dienesch and Liden 1986).

Contingency Theory: Path-Goal Theory

The contingency theory of leadership contends that a leader's influence depends on the particular situational circumstances at hand (Fiedler 1964). A leader's influence

on followers can also depend on various aspects of the relationship shared by the two parties. For example, leadership effectiveness can be contingent upon the leader's personality, experience, and relative contact with subordinates. Moreover, this effectiveness can be contingent upon the expectations and behaviors of the leader's direct superiors, direct peers, and/or direct subordinates.

Within the contingency theory of leadership, the path-goal theory leadership aims to provide a framework for discerning effective leadership under different circumstances. Originated by Evans (1970), advanced by House (1971), and refined by House and Mitchell (1974), it integrates key elements of behavioral theory (i.e., leader consideration and initiating structure) and expectancy theory to qualify the contextual circumstances by which to examine effective leadership (Stoner and Freeman 1992). In short, the path-goal theory of leadership contends that leaders should clarify for their subordinates which path best leads to some desired goal. Generally, this goal should be associated with certain payoffs consistent with the wants and/or needs of the subordinate (House 1971; House and Mitchell 1974; Stoner and Freeman 1991). Consequently, subordinate payoffs should lead to higher satisfaction and performance (Keller 1989). So, to the extent that leaders set clear goal-paths, reward followers for completing them, and motivate subordinates with those rewards, their leadership style is considered effective.

Wofford and Liska (1993) suggest that leaders should perform four motivational functions, specifically (1) clarifying paths to subordinate payoffs, (2) increasing payoffs to subordinate for work-goal achievement, (3) removing or reducing obstacles in the path towards work-goal achievement, and (4) increasing instruments (e.g., rewards) for satisfaction of subordinates. Implicit with path-goal theory is that leaders must identify

specific goals and reliable paths thereto. In addition, leaders are expected to maintain a tone for open, bi-directional communication with their subordinates. Progressing from these implicit terms are four specific dimensions of leadership: (1) participative leadership behavior, (2) supportive leadership behavior, (3) directive leadership behavior, and (4) achievement-oriented leadership behavior. These dimensions reflect historically supported leadership aspects, such as consideration, initiation structure, authoritarianism, hierarchical influence, closeness of supervision, and path-goal valence and instrumentality (House 1971).

Transactional and Transformational Leadership

The last major installments in leadership perspectives are transactional and transformational leadership. Downton (1973) made the first formal distinctions of transformational leadership from transactional leadership to cite differences between societal leaders. Specifically, he sought to characterize with some discriminant clarity revolutionary, rebel, reform, and ordinary leaders. Not until some five years later with the publication of Burns' (1978) seminal work on political leadership, did Downton's contributions come to be recognized. Advancing from Downton's position, Burns (1978) contends that political transactional leaders "approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another: job for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions. Such transactions comprise the bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers, especially in groups, legislatures, and parties" (p. 3).

The transactional theory holds that leaders generally focus on the achievement of shorter-term goals and use one-time rewards to affect desired performance towards

those goals. Borrowing from Burns (1978), Bass (1985) characterized the transactional leader as one who:

1. discerns what his subordinates want from their work and supports them realizing those wants if their performance so warrants it;
2. exchanges rewards and promises for future rewards according to levels of effort put towards certain performance goals; and
3. considers self-interests of subordinates to the degree that they perform well.

Alternatively, the transformational theory of leadership contends that leaders can motivate employees to make considerations beyond their individual interests and focusing on a central goal-achievement. Howell and Avolio (1993) state that “Leaders who are considered transformational concentrate their efforts on longer-term goals; place value and emphasis on developing and inspiring followers to pursue the vision; change or align systems to accommodate their vision rather than work within existing systems; and coach followers to take on greater responsibility for their own development, as well as the development of others” (p. 891).

Zaleznik (1977) made parallel advancements to Burns (1978) in the leadership literature with his conceptual contrasts of managers from leaders. In short, he argues that managers are more transactional, while leaders can be more transformational when appropriate. Intrinsically, all individuals are able relate on transactional bases with one another. However, fewer individuals are born with the innate ability to relate on transformational bases. Trait theory, for example, would suggest that leaders are born with a finite array of specific and individualized traits.

In this vein, Avolio and Gibbons (1988) and Tichy and Devanna (1986) state that transformational leaders would not merely recognize the needs, wants, and desires of their subordinates as their transactional counterparts. Rather, they would also make

persistent efforts, whether subtle or apparent, to escalate those needs, wants, and desires graduated levels of development and maturity. Again, borrowing from Burns (1978), Bass (1985) characterized the transformational leader as one who:

1. elevates the awareness level of subordinates about the importance of having vision, committing to strategy, and achieving performance goals as well as other desired outcomes;
2. encourages subordinates to place group vision, concerns, goals, above their own self-interests for the benefit of the whole organization;
3. broadens and deepens subordinates' needs, wants, and desires to include enthusiasm for continuous self-improvement and goal advancement.

Transformational leadership has also been suggested to distinguish "leader managers" from "routine managers" (Gardner 1986). Such leaders are characterized by relatively long-term orientations, forming priorities on the basis of present and future needs of employees and the organization. Similarly, they have an appreciation for the "big picture," not being consumed by details, yet still monitoring their linkages as crucial elements of the organizational system (Bass 1990). Moreover, transformational leaders encourage their subordinates to take on "big picture" mentality that supersedes individual interests for the benefit of the group.

Transformational leaders demonstrate at least four complementary competencies, namely charismatic leadership, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass 1985, 1990; Bass and Avolio 1989).

Charismatic leaders are generally identified with and emulated by their followers. They are respected, trusted, and earn commitment to their missions and goals. In addition, the set behavior and performance standards that are often taken up by their followers.

Inspirational leaders share some common characteristics with charismatic leaders. However, the extent to which followers respect, trust, and commit to them is contingent upon the degree to which the followers identify with the leader. Follower identification is critical since inspirational leadership depends largely on followers' sensitivity to emotional appeals for action and mutual commitment to achieving goals.

Intellectual stimulation is used to encourage followers to consider newer, more effective methods of thinking, acting, and performing. Often it is concerned with motivating followers to reconsider their natural, habitual, or traditional habits. Followers may also be encouraged to think independently, preemptively address challenges, and resolve problems creatively.

Individual consideration is characterized by providing followers with opportunities to fulfill needs for learning, self-enhancement, and the like.

As sales managers make efforts to guide and direct the behavior and performance of their salespersons, they may ultimately implement a mix of transactional and transformational leadership styles. As mentioned above, transactional methods are generally regarded as the instruments of managers. Transformational methods are generally regarded as the instruments of leaders. Understanding the instruments employed by sales managers can help researchers better understand the quality of their role in particular sales organizations.

Communication

Understanding relationships, whether horizontal, vertical, or networked, requires an understanding of communication. Indeed, it can be described as "the glue that holds organizations together" (Mohr and Nevin 1990). While most researchers and

practitioners concede that communication is essential to the effective formation and maintenance of business relationship, scholars have explained it mainly in conceptual terms. The dearth of actual empirical study in the sales management literature has been reflected in familiar prescriptions for "improved communication" or "open communication" (Mohr 1989). However, these prescriptions have been offered without standards that address communication context, form, delivery, and the like. As a result, the literature on sales management literature is relatively void of substantive discernment about how communication influences relationships between sales managers and salespersons. On a related front, Bandyopadhyay, Robicheaux, and Hill (1994) suggested that the marketing literature requires more research on the role of social and cultural factors in communication. Nearly three decades ago, Condon and Yousef declared, "we cannot separate culture from communication, for as soon as we start to talk about one, we are almost inevitably talking about the other" (p34).

Facets of Communication

Mohr (1989) identified four facets of communication, including frequency, direction, modality, and content. Frequency refers to the amount of communication realized between relationship members. Direction refers to the vertical movement of communication between relationship members. The movement can be understood in terms of more unidirectional or bi-directional initiations of communication from one member to another. Modality refers to the structure of communication. The structure may occur as either formal (e.g., prompted, directed) or informal (spontaneous, uninvited). Content refers to the directness with which communication is expressed. Direct communication is intended plainly to affect specific change in the receiver's

behavior. This facet of communication often takes the fashion of threats or promises. Indirect communication is intended to alter how the receiver perceives particular behaviors. This facet of communication may often occur in the form of recommendations or pleas that encourage the receiver to consider enacting certain behaviors preferred by the sender.

Chapter Summary

Chapter Two presents a platform for the notion that as sales managers are responsible for leading, directing, and interacting with a variety of sales employees (and vice versa), they are likewise responsible for managing a potentially diverse portfolio of relationships. Managers may choose to manage these relationships through single or mixed applications of leadership and communication styles. Moreover, they may also influence these relationships by exuding impressions both actively and/or passively, consciously and/or unconsciously.

Relationship management, paraphrased from Wall and Callister's (1995) emphasis on conflict management, is essential for creating, developing, and maintaining quality, effective interaction between sales managers and salespersons:

"Conflict management should not, as it does, attempt only to maximize the parties' outcomes; it should also address the relationship.... Increasing the payoffs to each [party] is admittedly of value. Yet enhancement of their relationship would probably have a significantly greater impact on their joint utility" (p.547).

Hence, it is the position of this paper, that relationship management within the sales organization enables sales managers and salespersons to realize enhanced relations, which ultimately enables them to achieve mutually desired outcomes, such as

organizational commitment, job satisfaction, greater sales, and so on. Otherwise stated, as managers focus on recognizing individual differences associated with culture, they can develop and apply appropriate leadership and communication styles that positively impact the relationship specific assets valued by salespersons. So, by first enhancing various aspects of the relationship, sales managers can ultimately affect more favorable outcomes in the behavior of salespersons.

Chapter Three will present the research model used to relate individual differences (per cultural orientation), leadership styles, communication, relationship quality, and relationship effectiveness. It will provide a diagram illustrating the relationships between the various research concepts. In addition, it will build a conceptual platform for each hypothesis by way of theory, reasoning, and/or logic.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH MODEL

The general purpose of this dissertation is to provide a strategic integrated model (see Exhibit 3.1) for relationship management within the sales organization. Specifically, the model will examine how individual cultural differences affect relationships between sales managers and salespersons. It also considers how sales managers can enact particular leadership and communication behaviors to capitalize on the benefits of relational similarities or mitigate the costs of relational dissimilarities. This model suggests that applying a proper repertoire of leadership styles can improve relationship quality and, ultimately, relationship effectiveness. Here, relationship quality can be understood as “an overall assessment of the strength of a relationship and the extent to which it meets the needs or expectations of the parties” (Smith 1998, p. 78).

The research performed in this dissertation can be differentiated from existing research in the area of intraorganizational relationship management on several bases, including:

- It evaluates individual differences according to internal characteristics (cultural orientation) at the individual level within the context of sales management and salesperson relationship dyad. Much cultural research compares individual differences based on cultural dimensions occurring at the national (not individual) level (Donthu and Yoo 1994). Such an approach fails to capture the richness of diverse cultural orientation that occur and/or are manifested at the individual level. Individuals must necessarily orient themselves according to national standards for that approach to be applied for researching individuals. Surely, as the workplace becomes more diverse in age, gender, ethnicity, and religion, it necessarily does so culturally as well.

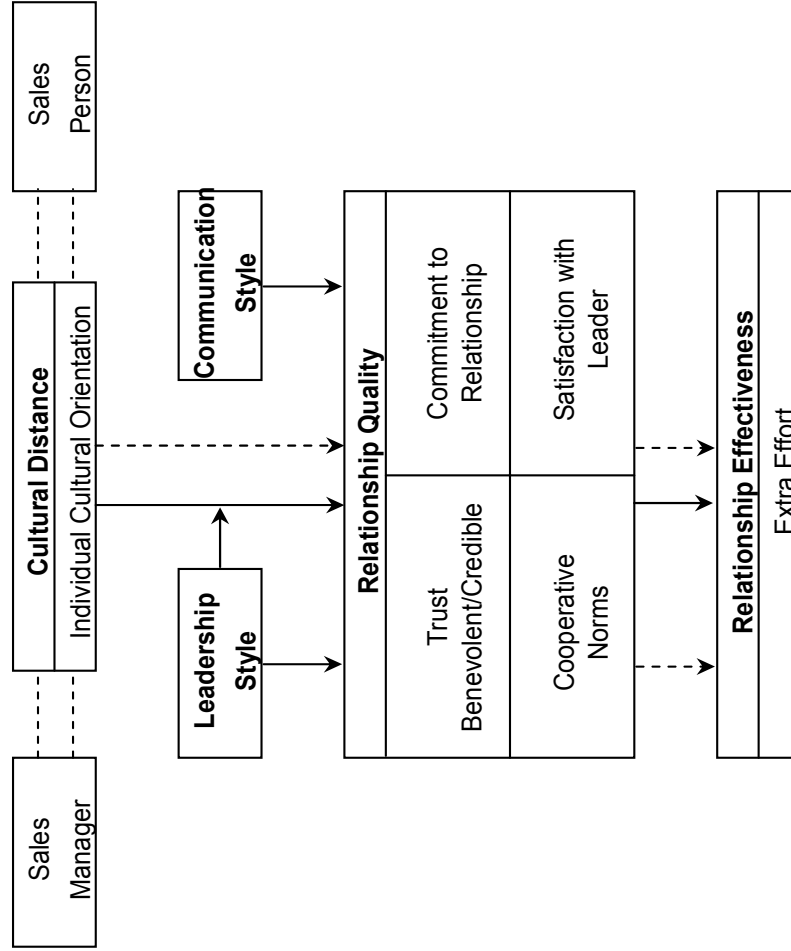
- It suggests that individual differences are inevitable within sales manager and salesperson relationships. Researchers have commonly focused on apparent and more discernable demographic differences (e.g., race, gender, and age) between managers and their subordinates. While this approach is useful, it misses the importance of how similarly internal personal orientations (e.g., culture) can influence relationships.
- It contends that individual differences between sales managers and salesperson do not necessarily impart an exclusively negative impact on relationship quality. In particular, it posits that the impact of such differences on relationship quality can be affected by sales managers' leadership styles within the relationship.
- It argues that sales managers can affect valuable relationship outcomes associated with their salespersons. Advancing from the previous points, it suggests that sales managers can influence the extent to which salespersons are generally satisfied, committed to the relationship, and, ultimately, concerned to expend effort towards organizational goals.

Within the context of the sales manager and salesperson dyad, the model of relationship management developed in this dissertation will outline the roles of (1) individual differences per cultural orientation and (2) sales managers' leadership styles in affecting relationship quality and effectiveness. This research is anchored, in part, by the similarity-attraction paradigm to help ascertain the significance of cultural differences in sales manager and salesperson relationships. It can be distinguished from existing literature on related topics, because it suggests that differences alone may not explain how and why either relationship party perceives and behaves towards the character of the other.

First, it suggests that differences are only as important as both parties perceive them to be relevant in the work climate. Second, it contends that the expected negative influences of such differences can be mitigated by a sales manager's leadership and communication. Third, it presents the position that sales managers can affect desired outcomes, such as relationship commitment, satisfaction, and effort by *managing* their relationships with salespersons. In other words, it holds that by diagnosing and treating

EXHIBIT 3.1

AN INTEGRATED CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR UNDERSTANDING RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT IN SALES MANAGER - SALESPERSON DYADS



their relationships through leadership and communication, sales managers can favorably enhance behavioral outcomes of salespersons.

Relationship Conditions

This chapter will present research hypotheses pertaining to cultural climate, leadership, and communication as they relate to relationship outcomes. Relationship quality can be defined here as the reflection of interpersonal assets that make partnerships more relational versus discrete (transactional) towards the better functioning of interaction between partners. Underlying this definition is the notion that relationship quality can be mutually perceived.

Relationship Management in the Sales Organization

Acknowledging that the sales function is critical to the profit-seeking goals of commercial enterprises, marketing scholars and practitioners have continuously sought out effective instruments and methods to maximize the commitment and performance of individual salespersons (see for example Sager and Johnston 1989; DelVecchio 1998). For all intensive purposes, sales managers are charged with developing productive relationships with their subordinate salespersons. In this light, the research embodied here suggests that sales managers must manage relationships with each of their salespersons. Summarily, then, sales managers are charged with the task of *relationship management*. This relationship management is essential for creating more quality in and effectiveness of relationships between sales managers and salespersons. As stated previously in this dissertation, differences between relationship partners will exist inevitably in some form, to some degree, or at some level. As sales managers are now

responsible for managing and leading diverse groups of salespersons, they must help foster relationships that have sound quality and consistent productivity, even amidst various interpersonal differences.

Cultural Climate

In terms of organizational research, climate is often regarded synonymously with several constructs. Falcione and Kaplan (1984) declared that “climate is potentially inclusive of almost all organizational characteristics.” Within the broad domain of organizational climate, researchers have examined leadership style (Bass and Avolio 1990), organizational identification (Tyagi 1985), psychological environment (Muchinsky 1977), and shared trust and goal compatibility (Anderson, Lodish, and Weitz 1987), among other issues. It would seem intuitive that within the breadth, depth, and scope of research in the climate area it would be difficult to uniquely assess the presence and role of myriad related variables without several confounds (Falcione, Sussman, and Herden 1987). Given the high potential for confounding, it becomes important to appropriately define climate in terms that enable proper detection and measurement of constructs.

In general terms, climate may be regarded as a representation of organizational members’ perceptions of the work environment. This work environment is comprised of different organizational characteristics as well as the nature of each member’s relationships with other members (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1976). Climate is very important to organizational settings because it provides context for interpersonal relationships (Falcione et al. 1987). So, then climate can be said to influence how organizational members perceive one another and, consequently, relate and respond to one another.

Climate has been understood synonymously with the concept of culture. Indeed, Smircich and Calas (1987) assert that culture is climate reborn. Following that paradigm, this dissertation adopts the view that culture establishes the context for interpersonal relations between sales managers and salespersons. Subsequently, cultural context could also be said to influence the quality of interpersonal relations between sales managers and salespersons. The following sections will outline the role of culture in these relations.

Cultural Difference: Cause for Relationship Management

The previous chapter discussed the myriad views, definitions, and characterizations of culture. Regardless of which view, definition, or characterization one accepts, the shared denominator for each is that people differ internally, or psychically, from one another. While much attention has been given to differentiating people according to national culture, there is reasonable interest and evidence leading to the notion that people also differ in measurable terms at the individual level (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1997; Donthu and Yoo 1997; Dorfman and Howell 1988); and Still 1981). This body of knowledge would seem especially salient for understanding highly diverse, or “proverse,” environments where people are mutually foreign to one another in respects that are not necessarily bound by national borders, but by other contexts, such as ethnicity, religion, birthplace, gender, lifestyle, and personal experience.

Model Development

Relationship can be understood in terms of the mutual distance realized between relationship partners. This distance may be subsequently construed in terms of difference or similarity. This dissertation considers cultural orientation and individual differences therein as an important basis for gauging relational distance. As noted in the previous chapter, cultural orientation at the individual-level can be interpreted according to Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of culture. These dimensions include *power distance*, *individualism versus collectivism*, *uncertainty avoidance*, *masculinity versus femininity*, and *short-term versus long-term orientation*.

Influence of Relational Distance: Difference and Similarity

Following Tsui and O'Reilly (1989, 1992), this author suggests that knowing the comparative (dis)similarities between the cultural characteristics of sales managers and salespersons (or, relational distance) can provide antecedent information about relationship context and quality (e.g., trust, commitment, cooperation).

It has been argued that the influence of contextual antecedents to relationship consequences may be transmitted through some key constructs such as trust and commitment (Morgan and Hunt 1994; Sarkar, Cavusgil, and Evirgen 1997). The basic premise of the relational distance approach to understanding relationship quality and its consequences is readily understandable. For the social system of relationships can be described as "comprising interacting sets of ... economic and sociopolitical forces which affect collective behavior and performance" (Stern and Reve 1980, p. 53). Bandyopadhyay and Robicheaux (1993) suggest that the sociopolitical forces are tempered by the cultural characteristics of the task environment. It follows, then, that

the cultural environment can influence the quality of interpersonal relationships, such as those between sales managers (superiors) and salespersons (subordinates).

Significant challenges can arise when managers must reconcile issues of difference of diversity between national cultures (Lane and Beamish 1990). It may be construed further that similar challenges can arise where perceptions of appropriate organizational culture are opposed. Different cultural profiles may dispose parties towards different values, belief systems, attitudes, and behavior (Hofstede 1997; Deshpandé et al. 1993) and, thus, complicate management of vertical relationship dyads. Ralston, Terpstra, Holt, and Cheng (1997) underscore the implications of these dispositions: "Since corporate culture grows out of the values held by organizational members, the influential members of the organization [...] have similar ways and beliefs that guide their behaviors when transacting business with members from other societies, as well as members from their own society" (p. 178).

Lane and Beamish (1990) suggest that similar cultural attitudes and behaviors are conducive to favorable joint action, while, by contrast, dissimilarity or diversity is not conducive to relationship effectiveness. As trust is "a set of expectations shared by all those involved in an exchange" (Zucker 1986, p. 54), it follows, then, that greater relational distance should lead to higher levels of trust. Stated otherwise, if cultural differences are relatively low or can be assuaged, then trust should be likely to be high. Gulati (1995) suggested that generally trust is higher in domestic relational exchanges than in foreign relational exchanges.

One can advance basic principles of attraction theory to explain the preference of individuals to deal with similar versus dissimilar, per demographics or psychographics, under *ceteris paribus* conditions. For, as different individuals perceive greater similarity

in values and attitudes towards the marketplace, they expect to realize more quality interaction within their relationship (Byrne 1971). Baskett (1973) showed that similarity on factors, such as attitude and competency, could increase mutual attraction. Finally, since individuals can be attracted to others with which they are quite similar, then they should be less likely to quit or compromise their relationships. They should be less inclined to invest fewer resources in the relationship. It follows as well that greater bases and/or degrees of relational distance (or difference) can lead logically to the converse of the aforementioned positions.

H1: Greater relational differences in cultural values between sales managers and salesperson are associated with lower levels of relationship quality. Specifically, sales manager and salesperson relationship dyads marked by greater cultural distance will realize less relationship quality.

H2: Greater relational differences in cultural values between sales managers and salesperson are associated with lower levels of relationship effectiveness. Specifically, sales manager and salesperson relationship dyads marked by greater cultural distance will realize less relationship effectiveness.

Leadership Styles: Instrument of Relationship Management

Kohli (1989) suggested that relevant variables on the topic of leadership can be organized in three categories, namely: (1) salesperson's characteristics and role perceptions (Bagozzi 1980; Behrman, Bigoness, and Perreault 1981; Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1976; and others), (2) job task characteristics (Becherer, Morgan, and Richard 1982; Teas and Horrell 1981), and (3) supervisory behaviors (Kohli 1985, 1989; Teas and Horrell 1981; and Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1975, 1977).

This dissertation is concerned with the third category. It examines whether and to what extent sales managers can take action to improve the trust, commitment, cooperation, satisfaction, and work effort of salespersons. More specifically, it considers

the effectiveness of different leadership styles (behaviors), i.e., transactional and transformational, applied by sales managers to affect such outcomes. An analysis of both leadership styles is important since the former is often alleged to yielded effects on salesperson attitudes and behaviors, while the latter has been alleged to augment the same (Bass and Avolio 1993; Hater and Bass 1988).

While both styles of leadership can be differentiated, the ultimate purpose of this research context is to illustrate that they can be complementary. Hence, this dissertation aims to show that leaders may actually employ both styles (See Figure 3.2). Still, however, it shall be asserted that augmentation of the relationship, or alternatively the mitigation of threats to the relationship should be of ultimate importance to sales managers. Alluding to this thought, Bass and Avolio (1993) asserted:

A key concept of this model of leadership involves... the “augmentation effect.” The augmentation effect predicts that by measuring transformational leadership styles, we can achieve a higher level of precision in predicting extra levels of effort and other relevant criteria, than if we simply rely on previous model of transactional leadership. In the same vein, transformational leadership theory can be viewed as building on earlier theories of leadership in a constructive and integrative manner to explain more fully the range of behavior and outcomes impacted by various styles of leadership (p53).

Parts of the preceding chapter outlined the key characteristics of both transactional and transformational leadership. They can be distinguished in a summary fashion that fittingly orients one to appreciate their places in the relationship management context of sales manager and salesperson dyads. The major points of distinction between the leadership styles are rooted in how they affect the compliance, or “followship,” of subordinates.

Transactional leadership is marked by an order of give and take between leaders and followers. Leaders enacting such behavior may issue explicit responses to

followers' behaviors in the form of rewards or punishments as well as positive or negative feedback. In line with classical conditioning theory, the repetition of these leader responses can induce the instrumental compliance of followers (Kelman 1958, Pavlov 1907).

Transformational leadership involves some mutual acceptance of agenda
Bryman (1992):

Transforming leadership entails both leaders and followers raising each other's motivation and sense in purpose. This higher purpose is one in which the aims and aspirations of leaders and followers congeal into one.... Both leaders and followers are changed in pursuit of goals, which express aspirations in which they can identify themselves (p95).

This view of transformational leadership is in accord with Kelman's (1958) view that followers can be conditionally influenced through identification and/or internalization.

Influence of Transformational Leadership versus Transactional Leadership

Managers hold leadership roles by nature of the position within organizational hierarchies. However, the nature of the leadership -- transformational versus transactional -- serves to determine how effectively they can lead their subordinates.

Burns (1978) suggests that transformational leaders help increase their followers' awareness and importance of organizational objectives. Often, the transformational leader moves followers to think beyond their own self-interests towards the benefit of the local and general organization. The capacity of leaders to affect such attitudinal and behavioral orientations of their followers is a function of four factors, namely (1) Inspirational Motivation/Charisma, (2) Intellectual Stimulation, (3) Idealized Influence, and (4) Individualized Consideration.

Two renowned study series (Avolio and Bass 1988; Bass 1985) of subordinate perceptions about the effectiveness of their superiors in military and business presented several poignant findings on transformational leadership. According to these findings summarized by Bass and Avolio (1990), followers stated:

“... [transformational leaders] (sic) become a source of inspiration and charismatic identification for followers through their enthusiasm, ability to articulate a vision, and past accomplishments; they diagnose, meet, and elevate the needs of each of their followers through individualized consideration; and they intellectually stimulate their followers to view the world from many perspectives that they had not previously considered” (p2).

Dyadic View of Leadership

Managers are positioned as the superiors of relationships in the corporate workplace. As superiors, they are expected to provide leadership for their respective subordinate employees. Given that individual managers differ in their culture, beliefs, values, and attitudes, one should expect that they would demonstrate different styles of leadership. In addition, since leadership involves a specified leader and followers, each leadership orientation can be construed from the perspectives of both leaders and followers.

Hofstede (1994) highlights the importance of understanding leadership styles from at least a dyadic perspective:

“... managers derive their *raison d'être* from the people they manage; culturally, they are the followers of the people they lead, and their effectiveness depends on the latter” (p93).

From this view, one can appreciate the possibility that salespersons' perceptions of sales managers' leadership styles can influence desired relationship outcomes (e.g., relationship quality and satisfaction). One also understands that such perceptions can

vary at the individual level. Hence, perceptions can be more subjective versus objective in scope, and both are important.

The hypotheses on leadership styles shall address how these factors can be associated with a sales manager's ability to augment the quality of their relationships with salespersons. The hypotheses carefully attend to the previously cited admonition of Hofstede (1993) by considering perceptions of salespersons (followers) as they relate to sales managers' leadership orientation.

Influence of Charisma

Transformational leaders, versus transactional leaders, are more likely to be perceived as charismatic figures by their followers. Allegorically, they have a magnetism that draws others to them and their agenda (Bass and Avolio 1990). Definitively, charisma does not require actual or perceive likenesses, such as skin color, height, education, or income. Rather, it is based on the affect of and identification wanted by others familiar with the charismatic figure. This is an important concept, because it underscores the fact that not all people may view the same character as charismatic. Simply put, different people may view the same character differently. Herein, one can appreciate the importance of understanding the importance of interpersonal differences in workplace relationships.

As followers generally want to identify with charismatic leaders, it could be argued that they can are somewhat attracted to them. It follows in the sales organization, then, that as subordinates perceive their manager to be charismatic, they identify with him and his agenda. Therein, they are attracted to the managers' character

and value relationships with him. They can be expected to foster strong favor for the manager as leader, including confidence and trust.

Influence of Inspiration

Transformational leaders, versus transactional leaders, are more likely to be received as inspirational figures by their followers. Bass and Avolio (1990) contend that as leaders are regarded as inspiring characters, they can move their followers to feel more capable at overcoming apparent challenges, threats, and less than ideal circumstances related to work. They tend to exhibit a concern for citing and achieving shared goals, that is, what outcomes are desired by the sales organization, sales manager, and salesperson. As transformational leaders tend to demonstrate a concern for shared goal acknowledgement and attainment, they can be expected to earn respect, trust, confidence, and commitment from their followers (Bass and Avolio 1990).

Influence of Intellectual Stimulation

Transformational leaders, versus transactional leaders, are more likely to be received as intellectually stimulating figures by their followers. As stated earlier, transformational leaders motivate followers to think above and beyond their present circumstances. In today's colloquial speech, one could state, that transformational leaders encourage followers to transcend their "comfort zone." A basic platform of this proposition is the assumption that followers are developmentally prepared for change and evolution towards progress (Bass and Avolio 1990). Satisfying this assumption, a ready follower can be motivated to do more than he had originally expected or intended to do. The transformational leader can be said to affect a follower's motivational

imperatives, because he affects the follower's confidence, especially as it related to the agenda or tasks at hand (Bass and Avolio 1990). The transformational leader even creates an atmosphere for critically questioning the beliefs, assumption, values, and goals of one's self, peers, and managers in order to achieve certain outcomes desired by the sales organization, leadership, and employees. Effectively, transformational leaders express to their followers that they are valued for the skills and intellectual assets that they bring to the organization. Relationship research covering organizational partnerships, marriages, and other varied domains has underscored the notion that partners will more freely trust, commit to, and cooperate with one another according to how appreciated and comfortable they feel to possess and express their values, skills, and abilities (Bass and Avolio 1990; Avolio and Bass 1988; Bass 1985).

Influence of Idealized Influence

Transformational leaders, versus transactional leaders, are more likely to exude idealized influence towards their followers. Manifested in perceptions of leader attitudes and behaviors, idealized influence produces admiration, respect, trust, and cooperation from followers. In addition, idealized influence may move followers to assume some level of risk-sharing or personal compromise to help their leaders achieve group-oriented ethics, standards, goals, and the like.

Influence of Individual Consideration

Transformational leaders, versus transactional leaders, are more likely to be received as individually considerate figures by their followers. Transformational leaders are implicitly interested in the needs, wants, and desired goals of their followers. So, it

can be intuitively comprehended that they would generally provide unique attention to each of their followers, as organizational size permits. Given the transformational leader's orientation to affect the goals of his organization, self, and followers, he generally integrates each goal set into the agenda of each respective party.

As a follower perceives that leaders are interested in his personal welfare, developmental needs, aspirations, and the like, he can be expected to demonstrate more interest in the success of his working relationships with those leaders (Bass and Avolio 1990; Avolio and Bass 1988; Bass 1985). For in some sense, the follower recognizes that his interests will be served by his demonstrate interest in the leader-follower relationship. This demonstrated interest may occur apparently in the form of trust, commitment, cooperation, and otherwise increased effort towards goal fulfillment.

Augmenting Influence of Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership has been deemed an augmenting complement, rather than a direct substitute, to transactional leadership. Hence, it can be reasonably assumed that leaders commonly enact transactional leadership styles, while they more differentially enact transformational leadership styles. Therefore, this dissertation focuses on the augmenting characteristics of transformational leadership styles that influence sales manager and salesperson relationship dyads.

Transformational leaders tend to demonstrate a concern for shared goal acknowledgement and attainment. Moreover, they can be expected to earn respect, trust, confidence, and commitment from their followers (Bass and Avolio 1990).

H3: Transformational leadership styles are positively associated with relationship quality.

- H4: Transformational leadership styles moderate the association between relational differences in cultural values and relationship quality. Specifically, as salespersons perceive their sales managers to be more transformational, differences in cultural values will have less impact on relationship quality.
- H5: Transformational leadership styles are positively associated with relationship effectiveness.
- H6: Transformational leadership styles moderate the association between relational differences in cultural values and relationship effectiveness. Specifically, as salespersons perceive their sales managers to be more transformational, differences in cultural values will have less impact on relationship effectiveness.

Comparative Influences of Transformational and Transactional Leadership

The primary leadership focus of this dissertation revolves around transformational leadership. However, as cited above, leaders can also enact and exude transactional leadership styles as well. Hence, both leadership styles merit some attention. The existing literature has neither addressed nor substantiated the differential influences of transformational and transactional leadership within the collective domain of culture and relationship quality. Nevertheless, the *augmenting influence* value associated almost exclusively with transformational leadership, does merit some investigation about whether and to what extent transformational leadership imparts greater augmenting influence on relationship quality than does transactional leadership. The dimensions of transformational leadership -- idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration -- have been cited above. The dimensions of transactional leadership -- contingent reward and management-by-exception -- will be discussed below to convey a gist of contrasts between the two leadership styles examined here.

Influence of Contingent Reward

Transactional leaders, versus transformational leaders, are more likely to implement a contingent reward style with their followers. As cited above, transactional leadership can be characterized by authority based on bureaucracy or position. Hence, it follows that leaders are endowed by organizational structural to set work standards and clarify tasks for their subordinates. Contingent reward reflects the leader's ability to affect followers' compliance per work standards and clarified tasks by using sets of associated conditional rewards and punishments.

Influence of Management-By-Exception

Transactional leaders, versus transformational leaders, are more likely to implement management-by-exception styles with their followers. Following the view of bureaucratically endowed authority noted above, leaders are responsible for managing the performance and other behaviors of their followers. Transactional leadership can be marked by active or passive management-by-exception. In the former case, leaders actively monitor completion of tasks for mistakes or shortcomings, and, in turn, implement corrective actions to prevent problems during task performance. In the latter case, leaders implement corrective actions, as in the former case, but only after a task has been completed.

Augmenting and Mitigating Effects of Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Given the relational-oriented, outcome-enhancing tendencies of transformational leadership, it has been regarded as an instrument to help followers overcome operational obstacles, reconcile problems, and deal with threats to success (Bass and

Avolio 1990). As clarified above, cultural differences may comprise such operational obstacles or relational problems. Also noted above, transformational leadership is conceptually endowed with an exclusive *augmenting influence* not had by transactional leadership.

H7: Transformational leadership styles, over transactional leadership styles, are more positively associated with relationship quality.

H8: Transformational leadership styles have an augmenting effect on transactional leadership styles in influencing relationship quality.

H9: Transformational leadership styles, over transactional leadership styles, are more positively associated with relationship effectiveness.

H10: Transformational leadership styles have an augmenting effect on transactional leadership styles in influencing relationship effectiveness.

Influence of Communication

Culture and communication are inseparable (Hall 1976). In the presence of individual cultural differences, interpersonal workplace relationships can become strained (Byrne 1971, Hofstede 1980). However, communication can play a role in bringing persons together over time, as it has been aptly described as “the glue that holds organizations together” (Mohr and Nevin 1990). Communication serves to bridge different persons towards more relational exchanges. Reciprocal communication between individuals provides opportunities for learning about one another and ultimately reflects a shared desire to trust, cooperate, and work better together. In the case of sales manager and salesperson relationships, reciprocal communication occurs both downward (from sales manager) and upward (from salesperson). Given that each party has different responsibilities and shared interests, such communication would help enhance the bonding that might occur between them (Mohr and Nevin 1990).

H11: Bidirectional communication is positively associated with relationship quality.

Influence of Relationship Quality

Crosby, Evans, and Cowles (1990) suggested a model of relationship quality comprised of trust in and satisfaction with a relationship partner. The previous hypotheses suggest that (1) cultural differences are negatively associated with relationship quality, (2) transformational leadership styles are positively associated with relationship quality, and (3) communication is positively associated with relationship quality.

In their own right, the factors comprising relationship quality must be examined to ascertain their role in affecting the ensuing behavior of salespersons. This dissertation considers one performance outcome, known as extra effort (Bass and Avolio 1990). Advancing the military metaphor from Chapter One, it is suggested that salespersons are relied upon to perform above and beyond the call of the duty to help the sales organization and company achieve sales, revenue, market share, and profit objectives. In addition, this research examines relationship quality in the context of an internal one-to-one dyad. The focal perceptions of relationship quality in this study are those of the subordinate salesperson. While financial or sales performance of individual salespersons would be an ideal factor for consideration, research has generally shown that firms are reluctant to provide such information (Naman and Slevin 1993; Sandberg and Hofer 1987). Moreover, this research is concerned with the salesperson's assessment of how much extra effort they are willing to expend as a result of their relationship with their sales managers.

In the context of the salesperson-to-customer dyad, Crosby et al. (1990) suggests that high relationship quality signals ability for customers to rely on the salesperson's integrity and have confidence in the productive benefits of continuing to interact with that salesperson in the future. Higher relationship quality, as marked by trust, commitment to the relationship, cooperation, and satisfaction, indicates significantly minimized uncertainty that serves to stifle the interests of the influenced party (e.g., customer, subordinate salesperson). As a result, salespersons perceiving high relationship quality (e.g., less relationship uncertainty) should exhibit more interest in performing work tasks.

H12: Relationship quality is positively associated with relationship effectiveness.

Chapter Summary

As stated at the introduction of Chapter Three, the model of relationship management presented herein addresses critical issues related to individual differences affect relationships between sales managers and salespersons.

The model considers the presence of individual differences based on cultural orientation. It contends the individual differences, indeed, play a role in affecting sales manager relationships per trust, commitment to the relationship, cooperative norms, and satisfaction with the relationship. Furthermore, it advances the notion that the impact of individual differences between sales managers and salespersons can be moderated by the leadership styles of sales managers. Consequently, it suggests, then, that even in the presence of individual differences, relationships can still be enhanced by enacted behaviors of sales managers.

Ultimately, this research model presents the position that sales managers can affect desired outcomes, such as relationship quality and relationship effectiveness by managing their relationships with salespersons through transformational leadership styles. Otherwise stated, the model reflects a proposal that sales managers can realize better relationships with their salespersons by first detecting the presence of individual differences and then managing the influence of those differences by implementing appropriate styles of leadership.

Chapter Four will present the research design and methodology implement for this dissertation. It will discuss the survey instrument and research constructs. In addition, the chapter will review the psychometric properties of the various construct measures in terms of reliability and validity.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter explains the development and refinement of the measurement instrument used to appraise cultural orientation, individual differences, leadership style, communication, relationship quality, and relationship effectiveness. It reports evaluations of the research variables using the procedures outlined by Churchill (1979). These procedures include appraisals of reliability and validity. Given that reliability can impose limits on a construct's validity, a reliable measure may not necessarily be a valid measure (Nunnally 1978). Therefore, this chapter also reports the results of validity tests on each research measure.

In summary, this chapter outlines (1) research design, (2) survey instrument development, (3) sample and data collection, (4) assessment of measurement instruments, and (5) statistical analysis procedures for hypothesis testing.

Research Design

A cross-sectional, correlational design was employed to gather data and evaluate the research hypotheses presented in Chapter Three. The primary unit of analysis is the relationship dyad shared by a sales manager and reporting salesperson. This relationship dyad comprises the unit of analysis since this dissertation examines the roles of (1) sales managers' leadership styles, (2) communication, and (3) salespersons' perceptions of relationship quality amidst individual differences between sales managers and salespersons in a work setting.

Development of the Survey Instrument

Several existing multi-item scales are used to measure the research constructs. These measures involve appraisals of self and others within a vertical relationship dyad (i.e., sales manager and salesperson). Therefore, the majority of the measures are based on individual perceptions. Given that relational attitudes and behaviors are based on perceptions of interactions, rather than on objective measures of interactions (Anderson, Lodish, and Weitz 1987; Roberts and O'Reilly 1974), this research adopts perceptually-based scales that measure the nature of the relationship dyad being studied.

Although this dissertation synthesizes various concepts from other research areas, the associated measures are still evaluated for their reliability and validity following the guidelines steps set forth by Nunnally (1978) and Churchill (1979), respectively.

Pre-Test of the Survey Instrument

A self-administered questionnaire was developed to measure the research constructs relevant to this dissertation. It was pre-tested through personal interviews with sales managers and salespersons employed at several for-profit companies as well as by two marketing academicians. These pre-test participants reviewed the questionnaire and provided feedback about the appropriateness and scope of the questions for content and face validity. The results from the pre-test were used to modify the questionnaire for fitness and clarity, as needed. The final version of the questionnaire is presented in the Appendix along with the cover letter sent to senior management within various divisions of the source company.

Sample and Data Collection

Data were collected using mail survey methods. The questionnaire was distributed to sales managers and their reporting salespersons via postal and electronic mail. Both versions were identical in content and instructed participants to return the survey via postal mail. Sales managers and salespersons received slightly different cover letters and surveys; however, both letters explained the academic nature of the research study. Sales managers were asked for self-reported perceptions of their manager's leadership styles and cultural orientations. Salespersons were asked for their perceptions of their managers' leadership styles as well as self-reported perceptions of the relationships they share with those managers. In addition, salespersons were asked to provide self-reported perceptions of their own cultural orientations. All participants were assured that their identity and responses would remain confidential given the dyadic nature of the research.

Of 565 surveys distributed to sample members, a total of 150 (26.55%) surveys were returned. A total of 132 (88.00% of 150; 23.36% of 565) returned surveys were complete and usable for data analysis. In this context of dyadic research, usability required that salesperson surveys be matched with sales manager surveys. This matching process was fulfilled by requiring sales managers to identify themselves by name and requesting salespersons to identify the sales manager to which they report. Salespersons were not required to identify themselves by name. This process also facilitates the key informant methodology, since sales managers' self-perceptions as well as salespersons' perceptual evaluations of relationships with their respective sales managers are necessarily bound to one another.

TABLE 4.1: DEMOGRAPHIC STATISTICS FOR RESPONDENTS IN STUDY					
Characteristic	Count	Mean	Std. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum
▪ Age (<i>n</i> =122)	-----	45.93	10.07	23.00	66.00
▪ Work Exp. (<i>n</i> =127)	-----	24.00	9.65	7.00	44.00
▪ Firm Exp. (<i>n</i> =130)	-----	8.81	7.21	1.00	24.00
<hr/>					
Gender (<i>n</i> =130)					
▪ Female	95 (73.1%)	-----	-----	-----	-----
▪ Male	35 (26.9%)	-----	-----	-----	-----
Manager-Subordinate					
▪ Identical Gender	66 (50.8%)	-----	-----	-----	-----
▪ Opposite Gender	64 (49.2%)	-----	-----	-----	-----
<hr/>					
Education (<i>n</i> =126)					
▪ High School	35 (26.9%)	-----	-----	-----	-----
▪ College, 2-Year	27 (20.8%)	-----	-----	-----	-----
▪ College, 4-Year	53 (40.8%)	-----	-----	-----	-----
▪ Master's	11 (8.5%)	-----	-----	-----	-----
<hr/>					

All participants were employees for a global manufacturer of personal consumer products. Given the very sensitive constraint of attaining dyadic data from both sales managers and their salespersons, the convenience sample was deemed the most appropriate method. In addition, a series of cancelled pledges by different companies to participate in the study further constrained the gathering of necessary data without creating harmful time delays. A few reasons cited for the cancelled pledges included changes in corporate ownership due to merger/acquisition, change of interest by senior management, or business closure. Table 4.1 presents demographic statistics for the respondents in the research study. The sample comprises a predominantly female (95) v. male (35) membership (*n*=130). Notably, however, this fact can be resigned as superficially important. The actual balance of matched-gender dyads (*n*=66, 50.8%)

versus opposite-gender dyads ($n=64$, 49.2%) is remarkably more important given the greater fact that the dyad, not the individual, is the truer unit of analysis. This ratio will be address later in consequent statistical analysis to acknowledge its role in the research findings. It should be noted, however, that this dissertation focuses on individual differences on the basis of cultural orientations. The variance across gender similarity, individual genders, is more appropriate and salient for research considerations.

Assessment of Psychometric Properties of Measurement Scales

Reliability and Validity

Reliability tests indicate the degree of measurement error present among scale items (Nunnally 1978). Since measurement error is often the instigated by the sampling of items for a test (Nunnally 1978), reliability tests help determine the degree to which scale items are internally consistent and actually tap the domain of a particular construct. Peter (1979) suggests that reliability reflects the “degree to which measures are free from error and yield consistent results” (p. 6). Advancing the importance of reliability to research measures, Peter (1979) contends:

...reliability is a necessary [but not totally sufficient] condition for validity, but unreliable measures attenuate (lessen) the correlation between measures. Thus, if reliability is not assessed and the correlation between measures of two constructs is low, marketing researchers have no way of knowing whether there is simply little relationship between the two constructs or whether the measures are unreliable (p. 6)

Essentially, the argument above implies that valid measures must be reliable for the researcher to able to discern the quality of relationships between different research constructs. Peter (1979) goes even further to suggest that behavioral measures are

rarely, if ever, totally reliable and valid. Therefore, social science researchers have a responsibility to continually evaluate and improve operationalized construct measures for content, reliability, and validity.

Item-to-total correlations assess the internal consistency of the multiple scale items. Items having low item-to-total correlations may signal that those items do not reflect the particular research construct or tap another dimension of that construct. Coefficient alpha (α) provides an assessment of overall scale reliability (Cronbach 1951). Scales should demonstrate reliabilities greater than .70 for early stages of research, .80 for basic research, and .90 for applied research (Nunnally 1978).

Factor analysis assesses the dimensionality of the research constructs (Churchill 1979). The items for a particular construct should load most heavily on one factor.

Content validity usually requires an extensive exploration of measures in the focal and related extant literature. The measure for this dissertation, which seem to demonstrate high face validity, were taken from various related extant literatures pertaining to culture, leadership, interpersonal relationships, and other topics of interest.

Convergent validity describes the degree to which a measure correlates with other measures intended to tap the same construct (Churchill 1979). High correlations with a global measure of the research construct suggest evidence of convergent validity. These correlations are formed via an average of the purified scale items.

Discriminant validity describes the degree to which a measure does not correlate strongly with measures from which it should differ (Churchill 1979). Therefore, unrelated constructs should correlate weakly with focal construct. Discriminant validity can also be substantiated statistically by maximum likelihood factor analysis (Long 1983). If scale items for each particular constructs load on the hypothesized factor(s),

then the constructs can be regarded as distinct, or discriminant (Carmines and Zeller 1979).

Lastly, nomological validity describes the degree to which a measure operates according to theoretical expectations in the relative context of other constructs within its “nomological net” (Peter 1981).

Cultural Orientation and Difference Measures

Cultural orientation was measured according to five dimensions that are well-accepted among organizational researchers. These dimensions include (1) Power Distance, (2) Uncertainty Avoidance, (3) Individualism versus Collectivism, (4) Masculinity versus Femininity, and (5) Short-Term Orientation versus Long-Term Orientation (Hofstede 1980, 1990). As this study pertains to the relationship shared by individual sales managers and salespersons, cultural orientation is measured at the individual level.

Power distance refers to the extent to which people in groups or organizations accept unequal distribution of power, privilege, and the like. It may also be understood as the degree to which people accept inequalities between the haves and have-nots.

Uncertainty avoidance refers to the extent to which people feel uneasy about or uncomfortable with uncertain, unknown, or unpredictable circumstances.

Individualism versus collectivism is concerned with the degree to which people value self versus the larger group, organization, or society. People who favor individualism tend to value more loose relational ties and self-oriented interests. By contrast, people who favor collectivism tend to value more close relational ties and group-oriented interests.

Confucian dynamism, or long-term orientation (Bond 1987), refers to the extent to which people concern themselves with the future, legacy, perseverance, and relevance of history to the present.

Masculinity versus femininity is concerned with the degree to which people subscribe to traditional social gender roles. These traditional constructs suggest that men are to be more aggressive, assertive, leadership-oriented, and focus on material success. In contrast, they suggest that women gravitate less toward these male-oriented characteristics and favor nurturing, modest ambitions, and balanced equity in privileges.

Considering the five dimensions above, cultural difference is defined as the distance between each individual's cultural values per each dimension. In this dissertation, cultural difference is assessed in terms of Euclidean distance, or the squared root of the sum of the squared differences between corresponding individual cultural values of sales managers and salespersons. This methodology is consistent with similar cultural research concerned with relationship dyads in the work setting (Manev and Stevenson 2001):

$$CD_{ij} = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^5 (D_{ik} - D_{jk})^2}$$

In the above computation, cultural difference is determined by the Euclidean distance measure, where CD_{ij} is the cultural distance between the sales manager and the subordinate salesperson, D_{ik} and D_{jk} are the perceptual values for the k -th dimension of cultural orientations of i -sales manager and j -salesperson. Scores for each dimension of cultural orientation are taken from the Cultural Values Scale (Donthu and Yoo 1998), an adapted version of Hofstede's taxonomy of national culture (Hofstede 1980). Cultural difference is then used to create three groups (i.e., low, moderate, and high culture

difference) according to the range of scores computed by the Euclidean distance calculation.

The measures of the five cultural dimensions orientation exhibit favorable psychometric properties (see Table 4.2). The purified scales demonstrate reasonable levels of reliability, with coefficient- α scores ranging from values of .6090 to .8487 for internal consistency.

Principle components factor analyses demonstrated the validity of items comprising the purified scales for each cultural dimension. The power distance scale ($\alpha=.6674$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.059), which accounted for 51.470% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .644 to .832. The power distance Likert-type scale included multiple questions, such as:

- PD1: People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions.
- PD2: People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.
- PD4: People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions.

The uncertainty avoidance scale ($\alpha=.8487$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.951), which accounted for 73.768% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .698 to .947.

The uncertainty avoidance Likert-type scale included multiple questions, such as:

- UA1: It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I am expected to do.
- UA2: It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.
- UA3: Rules and regulations are important to me because they inform me of what is expected of me.

The individualism v. collectivism scale ($\alpha=.7334$) produced two factors (eigenvalue=2.475; eigenvalue=1.181), which accounted for 49.505% and 23.260% percent of the variance, respectively. Together, the two factors accounted for 73.124% of the total variance. Items loading on the first factor exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .564 to .838. The third item, IC3, loaded more heavily on the second factor (.697). Only one additional item, IC4, loaded on the second factor (.568) and exceeded the cutoff point of .500. The individualism v. collectivism Likert-type scale included multiple questions, such as:

- IC1: Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group (either at school or the workplace).
- IC3: Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.
- IC4: Group success is more important than individual success.

The Confucian dynamism scale ($\alpha=.6090$) also produced two factors (eigenvalue=2.099; eigenvalue=1.003), which accounted for 41.984% and 20.056% percent of the variance, respectively. Together, the two factors accounted for 62.040% of the total variance. Items loading on the first factor exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .584 to .746. The first item, CD3, loaded more heavily on the second factor (.702). Only one additional item, CD6, loaded on the second factor (-.571) and exceeded the cutoff point of .500. The Confucian dynamism Likert-type scale included multiple questions, such as:

- CD1: I believe in careful money management (Thrift)
- CD2: I believe in going on resolutely in spite of opposition (Persistence).
- CD3: I believe in personal steadiness and stability.

Finally, the masculinity v. femininity scale ($\alpha=.7271$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.009), which accounted for 66.697% of the total variance. Each item's

factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .774 to .867.

The masculinity v. femininity Likert-type scale included multiple questions, such as:

- MF2: Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.
- MF3: Solving difficult problems usually requires an active, forcible approach, which is typical of men.
- MF4: There are some jobs that which a man can always do better than a woman.

Leadership Style Measures: Transformational Leadership Styles

Leadership style was measured according to several dimensions of leadership outlined by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1993, 1994). The view of leadership applied in this dissertation follows the dichotomous taxonomy of transformational leadership and transactional leadership. Transformational leadership is comprised of several components, including (1) Intellectual Stimulation, (2) Inspirational Motivation, (3) Idealized Influence, and (4) Individualized Consideration. Transactional leadership is comprised of (1) Contingent Reward and (2) Management-by-Exception.

Transformational leadership is generally characterized by a set of attitudes and behaviors that are relatively motivating, relational, and team-oriented as a primary means to achieve workplace and performance goals. It is manifested in leadership via intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, idealized influence, and individualized consideration (Bass and Avolio 1994). While addressed here in terms of its individual dimensions, transformational leadership will be treated as a single composite variable of those dimensions.

Individualized consideration refers to how well leaders focus on understanding the needs, wants, and interests of their subordinates as well as how they help those subordinates develop themselves towards their fullest potential.

TABLE 4.2: SCALE ASSESSMENT - CULTURAL ORIENTATION					
Measure	Factors Components Derived			Cronbach- α For Scales	
	1	2	Variance	Original	Purified
Power Distance					
▪ PD 1	(.832)	-----		.6512	.6674
▪ PD 2	(.713)	-----		(5 Items)	(4 Items)
▪ PD 4	(.644)	-----			
▪ PD 5	(.665)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.059				
<i>Variance Explained</i>	51.470%		51.470%		
Uncertainty Avoidance					
▪ UA 1	(.698)	-----		.8256	.8487
▪ UA 2	(.939)	-----		(5 Items)	(4 Items)
▪ UA 3	(.827)	-----			
▪ UA 4	(.947)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.951				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	73.768%		73.768%		
Collectivism					
▪ IC 1	(.688)	-.170		.6711	.7334
▪ IC 3	.564	(.697)		(6 Items)	(5 Items)
▪ IC 4	(.652)	.568			
▪ IC 5	(.838)	-.359			
▪ IC 6	(.746)	-.464			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.475	1.181	73.124%		
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	49.505%	23.620%			
Confucian Dynamism					
▪ CD 1	.584	(.702)		.5870	.6090
▪ CD 2	(.732)	-.113		(6 Items)	(5 Items)
▪ CD 3	(.746)	-.221			
▪ CD 5	(.536)	.351			
▪ CD 6	(.615)	-.571			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.099	1.003			
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	41.984%	20.056%	62.040%		
Masculinity/Femininity					
▪ MF 2	(.867)	-----		.6834	.7271
▪ MF 3	(.811)	-----		(4 Items)	(3 Items)
▪ MF 4	(.774)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.009				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	66.967%		66.967%		
Extraction Method: Principle Components. Loadings above .500 cut-off point appear in parentheses.					

Intellectual stimulation is concerned with how leaders challenge their subordinates to resolve problems creatively and refine their problem-solving methods effectively.

Inspirational motivation focuses on how leaders provide their subordinates with a sense of purpose that includes and transcends their own immediate self-interests. Inspirational motivation aims to help all team members achieve their individual and common goals. Inspirational leaders are generally charismatic.

Idealized influence refers to how well a leader's attitudes and behaviors translate into admiration, trust, and cooperation from subordinates. It involves bringing followers to understand the leader's values, standards, and goals for the goals.

The measures of the transformational leadership dimensions exhibit favorable psychometric properties (see Table 4.3). The purified scales demonstrate reasonable levels of reliability, with coefficient- α scores ranging from values of .7044 to .9341 for internal consistency. Example scale items are not presented for the transformational leadership dimensions since they are secured within the copyright of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass and Avolio 1995 and 2000).

Principle components factor analyses demonstrated the validity of items comprising the purified scales for each transformational leadership dimension. The intellectual stimulation scale ($\alpha=.8699$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.385), which accounted for 79.497% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .858 to .918.

The inspirational motivation scale ($\alpha=.7829$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.131), which accounted for 71.022% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .802 to .901.

Idealized influence is comprised of two separate components: attributes and behaviors. The idealized influence (attributes) scale ($\alpha=.7996$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=1.972), which accounted for 65.747% percent of the variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .799 to .828.

The idealized influence (behaviors) scale ($\alpha=.7044$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.171), which accounted for 54.272% percent of the variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .663 to .840.

The individualized consideration scale ($\alpha=.9341$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.680), which accounted for 89.332% percent of the variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .923 to .959.

TABLE 4.3: SCALE ASSESSMENT – TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP					
Measure	Factors Components Derived			Cronbach-α For Scales	
	1	2	Variance	Original	Purified
Intellect. Stimulation					
▪ IS 1	(.918)	-----		.8386	.8699
▪ IS 2	(.897)	-----		(4 Items)	(3 Items)
▪ IS 3	(.858)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.385				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	79.497%		79.497%		
Inspiration. Motivation					
▪ IM 1	(.802)	-----		.7409	.7829
▪ IM 2	(.901)	-----		(4 Items)	(3 Items)
▪ IM 3	(.822)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.131				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	71.022%		71.022%		
Ideal. Influence (Attrb.)					
▪ IIA 1	(.799)	-----		.7391	.7996
▪ IIA 2	(.804)	-----		(4 Items)	(3 Items)
▪ IIA 3	(.828)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	1.972				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	65.747%		65.747%		
Ideal. Influence (Behv.)					
▪ IIB 1	(.663)	-----		.7044	.7044
▪ IIB 2	(.663)	-----		(4 Items)	(4 Items)
▪ IIB 3	(.840)	-----			
▪ IIB 4	(.765)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.171				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	54.272%		54.272%		
Indiv. Consideration					
▪ INC 1	(.959)	-----		.8960	.9341
▪ INC 2	(.923)	-----		(4 Items)	(3 Items)
▪ INC 3	(.953)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.680				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	89.332%		89.332%		
Extraction Method: Principle Components. Loadings above .500 cut-off point appear in parentheses.					

Leadership Style Measures: Transactional Leadership Styles

In contrast to transformational leadership, transactional leadership is generally characterized by a set of attitudes and behaviors that are relatively task-for-reward focused, bureaucratic, and exchange-oriented as a primary means to achieve workplace and performance goals. It is manifested in leadership via contingent reward and management-by-exception. While addressed here in terms of its individual dimensions, transactional leadership will be treated as a single composite variable of those dimensions.

Contingent reward refers to how leaders convey their expectations of subordinates and reinforce the fulfillment of those expectations with rewards and punishments.

Management-by-exception refers to how leaders monitor factors that might affect the completion of tasks and fulfillment of performance goals.

The measures of the transactional leadership dimensions exhibit favorable psychometric properties (see Table 4.4). The purified scales demonstrate reasonable levels of reliability, with coefficient- α scores ranging from values of .7019 to .8113 for internal consistency. Example scale items are not presented for the transactional leadership dimensions since they are secured within the copyright of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass and Avolio 1995 and 2000).

Principle components factor analyses demonstrated the validity of items comprising the purified scales for each transactional leadership dimension. The contingent reward scale ($\alpha=.7019$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=1.593), which accounted for 79.656% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with both values equaling .893.

Management-by-exception is comprised of two separate components: passive and active. The management-by-exception (passive) scale ($\alpha=.7239$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=1.580), which accounted for 79.006% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with both values equaling .889.

The management-by-exception (active) scale ($\alpha=.8113$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.182), which accounted for 72.742% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .839 to .865.

TABLE 4.4: SCALE ASSESSMENT – TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP					
Measure	Factors Components Derived			Cronbach- α For Scales	
	1	2	Variance	Original	Purified
Contingent Reward					
▪ CR 1	(.893)	-----		.4721	.7019
▪ CR 2	(.893)	-----		(4 Items)	(2 Items)
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	1.593				
<i>Variance Explained</i>	79.656%		79.656%		
Mgt-by-Excp. (Passive)					
▪ MB 1	(.889)	-----		.5587	.7239
▪ MB 2	(.889)	-----		(4 Items)	(2 Items)
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	1.580				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	79.006%		79.006%		
Mgt-by-Excp. (Active)					
▪ MB 1	(.855)	-----		.8051	.8113
▪ MB 2	(.839)	-----		(4 Items)	(3 Items)
▪ MB 3	(.865)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.182				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	72.742%		72.742%		
Extraction Method: Principle Components. Loadings above .500 cut-off point appear in parentheses.					

Communication Measure

Communication has been called the glue that holds the organizations together (Mohr and Nevin 1990). This dissertation is concerned with the direction (i.e., unidirectional or bidirectional) of communication between sales managers and salespersons within the relationship dyad. Respondents were asked the following question:

- Of the contact that happens between you and your sales manager, what percentage you have initiated? (Roberts and O'Reilly 1974)

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

The measure was rescaled, so that lower numbers would represent unidirectional communication, while higher numbers would represent bidirectional communication. If the response is less than or equal to 50%, then the scaling procedure would demonstrate that lower numbers (i.e., closer to 0%) are more unidirectional, while higher numbers (i.e., closer to 50%) are more bidirectional. The converse would apply for responses greater than or equal to 50%, such that lower numbers (i.e., closer to 50%) are more bidirectional, while higher numbers (i.e., closer to 100%) are more unidirectional. Given the above discussion, a transformation of the upper-end of the scale would be as follows

- if % > 50%, then (bidirectional communication - 1) + 100%

All percents would be multiplied by 2 to ensure ascending scaling from 0% to 100%. In summary, then, the following computation would be applied:

- if % > 50%, then [(bidirectional communication - 1) + 100%] x 2
- if % ≤ 50%, then (bidirectional communication x 2)

The above computation produces a transformed bidirectional communication measure on a scale of .00 to 1.00, with lower scores indicating more unidirectional communication and higher scores indicating more bidirectional communication.

Relationship Quality Measures

Relationship quality has been called a higher-order construct, originally comprised of trust and satisfaction (Crosby 1990). Defined as “the strength of the relationship and the potential for the relationship to continue the process of development” (Griffith and Harvey (2001, p. 88). Consistent with prior research (see for example Crosby et al. 1990; Hennig-Thurau and Klee 1997; and others), relationship quality is appraised here in terms trust and satisfaction as well as additional factors, including commitment to the relationship and cooperation.

Morgan and Hunt (1994) support the addition of these factors on the basis that trust and commitment are part of what “distinguishes productive, effective relational exchanges from those are unproductive and ineffective” and “lead directly to cooperative behaviors” (p.22). Existing multi-item, self-report perceptual scales were used for each measure and assessed for reliability and validity. These details follow brief definitions of each aspect of relationship quality outlined below. While addressed here in terms of its individual dimensions, relationship quality will be treated as a single composite variable of those dimensions.

Trust has been defined as a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence (Moorman, Zaltman, and Deshpandé 1992). Here it is divided in terms of benevolence and credibility Ganesan (1994). Benevolent trust reflects the perceived altruism, or beneficial "intentions and motives" of one party acting for the

other (Ganesan 1994). Credible trust reflects the perceptions that a counterpart is expert and reliable in executing behaviors or acts effectively.

Commitment has been defined, in broad terms, as the relative strength of a party's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Steers, and Porter 1979). It is characterized by three related factors, including: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Here, commitment to the relationship (Anderson and Weitz 1992) is considered to reflect appropriately the dyadic domain of the sales manager and salesperson relationship.

Cooperative norms (Cannon 1992) refer to the perception of joint efforts between superior and subordinate to achieve mutual and individual goals successfully (Cannon and Perreault 1997; Stern and Reve 1980).

Satisfaction is commonly construed as a reflection of how pleased individuals are with particular or general persons, objects, circumstances, or situations. In this case, the relationship dyad is the object of satisfaction.

The measures of the relationship quality dimensions exhibit favorable psychometric properties (see Table 4.5). The purified scales demonstrate reasonable levels of reliability, with coefficient- α scores ranging from values of .6487 to .9118 for internal consistency.

Principle components factor analyses demonstrated the validity of items comprising the purified scales for each relationship quality dimension. The benevolent trust scale ($\alpha=.9118$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.573), which accounted for

TABLE 4.5: SCALE ASSESSMENT – RELATIONSHIP QUALITY

Measure	Factors Components Derived			Cronbach- α For Scales	
	1	2	Variance	Original	Purified
Trust (Benevolent)					
▪ TB 1	(.915)	-----		.8065	.9118
▪ TB 2	(.912)	-----		(5 Items)	(3 Items)
▪ TB 3	(.951)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.573				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	85.752%		85.752%		
Trust (Credible)					
▪ TC 1	(.833)	-----		.7117	.8143
▪ TC 2	(.906)	-----		(7 Items)	(3 Items)
▪ TC 3	(.837)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.216				
<i>Variance Explained</i>	73.853%		73.853%		
Cooperative Norms					
▪ CN 1	(.943)	-----		.7207	.9047
▪ CN 2	(.914)	-----		(6 Items)	(3 Items)
▪ CN 3	(.903)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	2.541				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	84.687%		84.687%		
Relationship Commit.					
▪ RC 1	(.792)	-----		-.2134	.6487
▪ RC 2	(.728)	-----		(5 Items)	(5 Items)
▪ RC 3	(.814)	-----			
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	1.820				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	60.678%		60.678%		
Satisfaction					
▪ RS 1	(.949)	-----		.8297	.8297
▪ RS 2	(.949)	-----		(2 Items)	(2 Items)
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	1.802				
<i>Variance Explained (%)</i>	90.108%		90.108%		

Extraction Method: Principle Components. Loadings above .500 cut-off point appear in parentheses.

85.752% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .912 to .951. In corollary, the credible trust scale ($\alpha=.8143$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.216), which accounted for 73.853% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .833 to .906. The benevolent trust Like-type scale included such items as:

- TB1: My superior is concerned about the welfare of my person and career.
- TB2: In times of trouble or threat, this supplier would go out on a limb for me.

The credible trust Like-type scale included such items as:

- TC1: My superior is frank (honest) in dealing with me.
- TC2: Promises made by superior are reliable.

The relationship commitment scale ($\alpha=.6487$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=1.820), which accounted for 60.678% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .728 to .814.

The relationship commitment Like-type scale included such items as:

- RC1: I (would) defend my superior when others (e.g., peers and outsiders) criticize her/him.
- RC2: I am (willing to be) patient with my superior when (s)he makes mistakes that cause me trouble.
- RC3: I am willing to dedicate whatever time, effort, and resources it takes to achieve my superior's sales objectives.

The cooperative norms scale ($\alpha=.9047$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=2.541), which accounted for 84.687% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with values ranging from .903 to .943. The cooperative norms Like-type scale included such items as:

- CN1: No matter who is at fault, we work together to find solutions.
- CN2: We are usually willing to make cooperative changes when necessary (e.g., overtime, time off).

The satisfaction scale ($\alpha=.8297$) produced one factor (eigenvalue=1.802), which accounted for 90.108% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with both values ranging equaling .949. Example scale items are not presented for satisfaction since they are secured within the copyright of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass and Avolio 1995 and 2000).

Relationship Effectiveness Measure

In the context of relationship dyads, researchers have been complacent with using commitment as an outcome variable (Hennig-Thurau and Klee 1997). However, for two succinct reasons, this dissertation considers a separate, perhaps more appropriate variable, *extra effort*, to discern the effectiveness of relationship quality.

First, relationship commitment has been fitted under the heading of relationship quality to reflect the valued uncertainty avoidance associated with trust, satisfaction, and cooperation characterizing, not simply ensuing from, higher quality relationships (Crosby 1990). Second, one can still be come across myriad conceptualizations of commitment (see Young and Denize 1995, for a synopsis). Definitions of commitment generally focus on an individual staying with a group or organization. However, commitment does not go far enough to capture what leaders actually value from present subordinate followers.

Essentially, leaders want their followers to demonstrate a willingness to enact extra effort towards achieving individual and group goals. Supporting this view, Wofford (1982) contends that leadership effectiveness can be more appropriately examined when considering the impact of that leadership on subordinate performance. Hence, this dissertation contends that extra effort is a fitting indicator of relationship

effectiveness as an outcome since it truly reflects a salesperson's evaluation and response to relationship quality.

Extra effort refers to the degree to which sales managers move salespersons to do more than they expect of themselves, attempt to achieve difficult tasks with resolve, and elevate their conviction to succeed at certain goals (Bass and Avolio 1995).

The measure of relationship effectiveness exhibits favorable psychometric properties (see Table 4.6). The purified scales demonstrate reasonable levels of reliability, with a coefficient- α score of .9168 for internal consistency.

TABLE 4.6: SCALE ASSESSMENT – RELATIONSHIP EFFECTIVENESS					
Measure	Factors Components Derived			Cronbach- α For Scales	
	1	2	Variance	Original	Purified
Extra Effort					
▪ EE 1	(.975)	-----		.7039	.9168
▪ EE 2	(.975)	-----		(5 Items)	(2 Items)
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	1.900				
<i>Variance Explained</i>	94.988%		94.988%		
Extraction Method: Principle Components. Loadings above .500 cut-off point appear in parentheses.					

Principle components factor analyses demonstrated the validity of items comprising the purified scale for relationship effectiveness. One factor (eigenvalue=2.216) was produced and accounted for 94.988% of the total variance. Each item's factor loading exceeded the cutoff point of .500, with both values equaling .975.

Example scale items are not presented for extra effort since they are secured within the copyright of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass and Avolio 1995 and 2000).

Data Analysis

Statistical Analysis for Hypothesis Testing

Data were analyzed and assessed using the General Linear Model (GLM) and least-squares regression within SPSS. All hypothesized relationships were tested and examined to discern their direction, strength, and significance of standardized correlation coefficients within the context of each statistical model. The detailed procedures for each test are outlined in more detail within Chapter Five.

Chapter Summary

Chapter Four presented a detailed review of the research design, methodology, and statistical testing procedures applied within this dissertation. It provided a clear rationale for the selection of the research design and setting per the dyadic nature of the research. Thereafter, the chapter described the survey instrument, construct operationalizations, data collection methods, and contextual characteristics of the research sample.

Given some of the familiar limitations induced by conducting survey research within a cross-sectional, correlational design, this chapter detailed the procedures employed to assess the psychometric properties of various measurement scales. The detail therein addressed the construct validity, convergent validity, and reliability per research construct. Following the topics of validity and reliability, the chapter included a description of the statistical analysis techniques used to evaluate the research hypotheses. Lastly, the hypothesized relationships posited between the research constructs will be presented in a series of mathematical equations.

Chapter Five will present various statistical evaluations of each hypothesized relationship in the research model. Given the multivariate and correlational characteristics of this research, the chapter will also address the issue of multicollinearity.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH FINDINGS

Chapter Five presents the empirical research findings resulting from statistical data analyses applied to evaluate the hypotheses posited in Chapter Three. Preceding the findings provided here, Chapter Four outlined how research constructs and their measurement scales were assessed for psychometric properties using a combination of reliability and factor analyses.

This chapter begins with an outline of the general mathematical equations used to evaluate the research hypotheses. It also reviews the statistical methodologies that were implemented within each hypothesis test. In addition, it continues with a discussion of multicollinearity and then describes the bivariate relationships existing among the research constructs. Thereafter, the empirical results derived from statistical hypothesis testing procedures are provided to evaluate the support for the hypothesized relationships posited in Chapter Three. The chapter closes with a summarization of the topics and findings addressed herein.

Mathematical Equations Used For Hypothesis Tests

The research embodied here involves both univariate and multivariate issues with a mix of categorical and continuous variables. These variables were presented in Chapter Four and are related to one another in the context of different mathematical equations (see Table 5.1) used to test the research hypotheses given in Chapter Three.

TABLE 5.1: GENERAL MATHEMATICAL EQUATIONS FOR HYPOTHESIS TESTS

Mathematical Equations	Hypothesis Evaluated	Statistical Procedures
1. $RQ + RE = [c''GENDM] + CD + TFLEAD + CD*TFLEAD + \varepsilon$	▪ H1, H2, H4, H6	GLM MANCOVA/ OLS [†]
2. $RQ = b_0 + b_1TFLEAD + \varepsilon$	▪ H3	GLM OLS
3. $RE = b_0 + b_1TFLEAD + \varepsilon$	▪ H5	GLM OLS
4. $RQ = b_0 + b_1TXLEAD [\dots + b_2TFLEAD] + \varepsilon$ * Comparison of ΔR^2 and β -Coefficients	▪ H7, H8	GLM OLS
5. $RE = b_0 + b_1TXLEAD [\dots + b_2TFLEAD] + \varepsilon$ * Comparison of ΔR^2 and β -Coefficients	▪ H9, H10	GLM OLS
6. $RQ = b_0 + b_1COMM + \varepsilon$	▪ H11	GLM OLS
7. $RE = b_0 + b_1TXLEAD + b_2TFLEAD + b_3RQ + \varepsilon$	▪ H12	GLM OLS
Explanation of Variables (In Alphabetical Order)		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ CD = Cultural Distance, Categorical ▪ COMM = Bidirectional Communication, Continuous ▪ GENDM = Gender Match, Categorical ▪ RE = Relationship Effectiveness, Continuous ▪ RQ = Relationship Quality, Continuous ▪ TFLEAD = Transformational Leadership, Continuous ▪ TXLEAD = Transactional Leadership, Continuous 		
[†]Explanation of Statistical Procedures		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ GLM = General Linear Model rendition by Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 10) ▪ MANCOVA = Multivariate Analysis of Covariance ▪ OLS = Ordinary Least Squares Regression 		

Statistical Methodology for Data Analysis

Given the need to analyze a mix of univariate and multivariate issues within the research hypotheses, the SPSS rendition of the General Linear Model (GLM) was used for analyses of variance and regression. The GLM approach enables the researcher to assess linear or linearly formed models with categorical and continuous variables, make group comparisons with balanced and unbalanced designs, and test linear combinations of independent and/or dependent composite variables (variates). Together, these three features, along with MANOVA's implicit ability to minimize Type I error rates at a specified α -level, combine to help one find the most sound verification of overall group differences (Hair et al. 1995). The GLM also affords the researcher the capability to conduct such analyses with certain departures from the three principle multivariate assumptions, including (1) independence among observations, (2) equality of variance-covariance matrices, and (3) normality of dependent measures (Hair et al. 1995). These principles are discussed where appropriate for each hypothesis test.

Multicollinearity

Collinearity refers to the relationship strength between two variables. Its plural, *multicollinearity*, generally refers to the strength of relationships exhibited among three or more independent (or predictor) variables in an equation. Variables reflect total collinearity if their correlation coefficient equals 1 and total lack of collinearity if their correlation coefficient equals 0. Multicollinearity can be said to represent the extent to which any predictor variable's effect can be predicted by any other predictor variables being analyzed. Therefore, as multicollinearity increases, the ability to ascertain and

discern a particular variable's effect can be compromised (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black 1995).

Research that employs several predictor variables could potentially yield inaccurate, imprecise, or otherwise misleading statistical results due to multicollinearity (Hair et al. 1995). Consequently, interpretation of those results could yield incorrect findings. Hence, an assessment of multiple correlations between independent variables is required to detect multicollinearity.

Multicollinearity can be detected and diagnosed in a three-step process, which includes the following elements: (1) review of a correlation matrix, (2) calculation of tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values for each variable, and (3) use of condition indices and decomposed variance of regression coefficients (Hair et al. 1995). The first element, review of a correlation matrix is presented in the next section below. The second and third elements will be presented iteratively and where appropriate for multiple regression test used to evaluate the hypotheses presented in Chapter Three.

Correlational Analysis

In an effort to diagnose the association of research constructs and the possible presence of multicollinearity among them, a pair-wise correlation matrix was produced (Table 5.2). This matrix helps identify the strength and direction of relationship shared among research constructs. The correlation matrix also provides information about the statistical and practical significance of the strength of those relationships.

Interestingly, and as expected, cultural distance exhibits a negative correlation with all relation-oriented constructs, namely transformational leadership ($\rho = -.155$, $p < .091$), bidirectional communication ($\rho = -.119$, $p < .195$), relationship quality ($\rho = -.1244$,

$p < .007$), and relationship effectiveness ($\rho = -.251$, $p < .006$). As indicated, the correlation for bidirectional communication is not statistically significant ($p < .195$). Cultural distance shows a positive correlation with the less relational construct, transactional leadership ($\rho = .159$, $p < .082$).

TABLE 5.2: MEANS AND CORRELATIONS OF RESEARCH VARIABLES									
	Mean	(S.D.)		1	2	3	4	5	6
Cultural Distance Group	2.024	(.820)	ρ	1.000					
			sig.	.					
			N	121					
Transformational Leadership	3.871	(.930)	ρ	-.155	1.000				
			sig.	.091	.				
			N	121	130				
Transactional Leadership	2.438	(.366)	ρ	.159	-.216	1.000			
			sig.	.082	.013	.			
			N	121	130	130			
Bidirectional Communication	0.851	(.244)	ρ	-.119	.315	-.279	1.000		
			sig.	.195	.000	.001	.		
			N	121	130	130	130		
Relationship Quality	4.385	(.582)	ρ	-.244	.760	-.156	.178	1.000	
			sig.	.007	.000	.076	.043	.	
			N	121	130	130	130	130	
Relationship Effectiveness	4.408	(.849)	ρ	-.251	.808	-.327	.165	.835	1.000
			sig.	.006	.000	.285	.061	.000	.
			N	120	130	130	130	130	130

Correlations between transformational leadership and other relational constructs with positive as expected: bidirectional communication ($\rho = .315$, $p < .000$); relationship quality ($\rho = .760$, $p < .000$); and relationship effectiveness ($\rho = .808$, $p < .000$). Its correlation with transactional leadership was negative ($\rho = -.216$, $p < .013$).

Transactional leadership exhibited anticipated negative correlations with the other more relational constructs: bidirectional communication ($\rho=.279$, $p<.001$); relationship quality ($\rho=-.156$, $p<.076$); and relationship effectiveness ($\rho=-.327$, $p<.285$).

In addition to its relationships with the above variables, bidirectional communication showed positive correlations with other relational constructs, namely relationship quality ($\rho=.178$, $p<.043$); and relationship effectiveness ($\rho=.165$, $p<.061$).

Lastly, relationship quality and relationship effectiveness exhibited a positive correlation ($\rho=.835$, $p<.000$) with one another as expected.

The moderate balance of statistically significant strong to weak correlations suggests that any possible collinearity should not be prohibitive to the statistical hypotheses tests that follow below. In addition, the use of these higher-order composite variables helps minimize the possibilities of multicollinearity and inflated Type I errors resulting from repeated means separation *t*-tests in the GLM.

Hypothesis Tests

The primary focus of this dissertation is to empirically verify the presence of theoretical relationships posited among the research constructs presented in Chapter Three. These research constructs include cultural orientation, leadership style, relationship quality, and relationship effectiveness.

The hypothesized relationships among these constructs were presented above in mathematical form (see Table 5.1). The hypotheses are tested using the General Linear Model (GLM) and multiple linear regression procedures within SPSS. While the correlational analysis provided details about the bivariate relationships between

variables, these procedures enable assessments of simultaneous influences of different independent/predictor variables on dependent/criterion variables.

Each hypothesized relationship is assessed according to the direction, strength, and significance of standardized correlation coefficients within the context of each statistical model that uses regression. Positive correlation coefficients would indicate positive relationships among regressed constructs, while negative correlation coefficients would indicate negative relationships among the same.

Cultural Orientation, Relationship Quality, and Relationship Effectiveness

The hypotheses pertaining to cultural orientation, relationship quality, and relationship effectiveness are reiterated below and followed by results of the associated statistical tests:

- H1: Greater relational differences in cultural values between sales managers and salesperson are associated with lower levels of relationship quality. Specifically, sales manager and salesperson relationship dyads marked by greater cultural distance will realize less relationship quality.*
- H2: Greater relational differences in cultural values between sales managers and salesperson are associated with lower levels of relationship effectiveness. Specifically, sales manager and salesperson relationship dyads marked by greater cultural distance will realize less relationship effectiveness.*

Support for both of these hypotheses would be demonstrated by a statistically significant GLM multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA), partially controlling for the influence of transformational leadership. The inclusion of transformational leadership as a metric covariate helps increase mean square within-group variance and removes extraneous (e.g., non-culture) influences in the dependent variate (i.e., vector of means for relationship quality and relationship effectiveness) (Hair et al. 1995).

The MANCOVA should exhibit a significant cultural distance effect (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on relationship quality (H_1) and relationship effectiveness (H_2). Post hoc multiple comparisons would be expected to show greater advancing negative effects for low to moderate to high cultural distance, in that order. Pillai's Trace (V) is the preferred test statistic for the multivariate analyses given its robustness (i.e., protection against finding statistical significance when none exists), particularly in situations that may involve smaller sample sizes or departures from the multivariate assumptions explained above.

Diagnostic Tests of Assumptions in MANOVA/MANCOVA

Because all groups are effectively equal in size, departures from the very sensitive Box's M Test of equality of covariance matrices ($M=82.402$; $F=13.397$; $p<.000$) should have minimal impact on the MANCOVA (see Table 5.3). Supporting this view, Hair et al. (1995) suggest the largest group should not differ more than 1.7 times the size of the smallest group. Here, the largest group ($CD_3=42$ cases) equals just 1.077 times the size of the smallest group ($CD_1=39$ cases), which clearly complies with Hair et al.'s (1995) suggestion. Levene's Test of equality of error variances (RQ: $F=.808$, $p<.448$; RE: $F=1.661$, $p<.194$) provides sufficient evidence of univariate homogeneity of variance. The results of Levene's Test also support the validity of potentially significant post hoc mean comparisons following the initial MANCOVA. Given that these analyses do not involve univariate repeated measures, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Test is neither necessary nor appropriate, especially since sphericity is not a required assumption for MANCOVA.

TABLE 5.3: HYPOTHESES RESULTS FOR MANCOVA
 $RQ + RE = [c'GENMATCH] + CD + TFLEAD + CD*TFLEAD + \varepsilon$

Multivariate Tests of Significance					
MANCOVA	Value	F*	Univariate ANOVA		F*
▪ Pillai's Trace	.446	16.493*	▪ Relationship Quality (RQ)		8.916*
▪ Wilk's Lambda	.594	16.972*	▪ Relationship Effectiveness (RE)		15.821*
▪ Hotelling's Trace	.618	17.445*			
* p<.000					
Multiple Comparisons: Fisher's Least Significant Differences Test - (RQ)					
	Group Comparison	Mean Δ	Sign	SE	p
▪ CD ₁ (\bar{X} =4.503)	CD ₁ - CD ₂	.163	+	.084	.054
▪ CD ₂ (\bar{X} =4.340)	CD ₁ - CD ₃	.172	+	.084	.042
▪ CD ₃ (\bar{X} =4.331)	CD ₂ - CD ₃	.009	+	.080	.913
Multiple Comparisons: Fisher's Least Significant Differences Test - (RE)					
	Group Comparison	Mean Δ	SE	SE	p
▪ CD ₁ (\bar{X} =4.791)	CD ₁ - CD ₂	.645	+	.097	.000
▪ CD ₂ (\bar{X} =4.146)	CD ₁ - CD ₃	.382	+	.097	.000
▪ CD ₃ (\bar{X} =4.409)	CD ₂ - CD ₃	.263	-	.093	.006
Diagnostic Information					
Test of Assumptions: Homogeneity of Variance					
▪ Levene Test, Univariate					
▪ RQ: F=.808, p<.448					
▪ RE: F=1.661, p<.194					
▪ Box's M, Multivariate					
▪ Full Model: M=82.402, F=13.397, p<.000					
Test of Assumptions: Correlation of Dependent Variables					
▪ Barlett's Test of Sphericity: n/a					
Tested Using General Linear Model and Multivariate Analysis of Covariance					

Statistical Results

The MANCOVA (Pillai's Trace, $V = .446$, $F=16.493$, $p<.000$) provides support for H_1 (Table 5.3). As hypothesized, the multivariate model shows significant mean differences in relationship quality (RQ) among the three cultural distance groups ($CD_1 \bar{X} = 4.579$, $CD_2 \bar{X} = 4.336$, $CD_3 \bar{X} = 4.2246$; $F=8.916$, $p<.000$). In an attempt to satisfy the curiosity about the impact of gender, the measure of gender-matched dyads (another basis of individual differences) was evaluated. When controlling for that variable ($F=8.331$, $p<.005$), the multivariate model still shows mean significant differences in relationship quality among the three cultural distance groups ($F=10.537$, $p<.000$).

The post hoc multiple comparisons for relationship quality provide additional univariate evidence of the group differences. Fisher's protected Least Significant Differences (LSD) mean separation tests showed significant estimated marginal mean differences for CD_1 v. CD_2 ($\Delta=.164$, $p<.054$) and CD_1 v. CD_3 ($\Delta=.173$, $p<.042$). No significant differences were found for CD_2 v. CD_3 ($\Delta=.009$, $p<.913$). Similar results were demonstrated when controlling for gender-matched dyads (CD_1 v. CD_2 : $\Delta=.132$, $p<.113$; CD_1 v. CD_3 : $\Delta=.163$, $p<.047$; CD_2 v. CD_3 : $\Delta=.031$, $p<.690$). This partially nontransitive effect (CD_2 v. CD_3) is not altogether uncommon in multiple comparisons. Moreover, failure to reject the null hypotheses of equal population means between CD_2 v. CD_3 does not necessarily imply that the means are equal. Rather, it more so suggests that the difference in means is not large enough to be detected with the current sample size.

The MANCOVA also provides support for H_2 (Table 5.3). As hypothesized, the multivariate model shows significant mean differences in relationship effectiveness (RE) among the three cultural distance groups ($CD_1 \bar{X} = 4.808$, $CD_2 \bar{X} = 4.138$, $CD_3 \bar{X} = 4.2738$; $F=15.821$, $p<.000$). As a complementary note, when controlling for gender-

matched dyads ($F=3.368$, $p<.069$), the multivariate model still shows mean significant differences in relationship effectiveness among the three cultural distance groups ($F=15.818$, $p<.000$).

The post hoc multiple comparisons for relationship effectiveness provide additional univariate evidence of the group differences. Fisher's LSD comparisons showed significant estimated marginal mean differences for CD_1 v. CD_2 ($\Delta=.645$, $p<.000$) and CD_1 v. CD_3 ($\Delta=.382$, $p<.000$), and CD_2 v. CD_3 ($\Delta=-.263$, $p<.006$). Similar results were produced when controlling for gender-matched dyads (CD_1 v. CD_2 : $\Delta=.621$, $p<.000$; CD_1 v. CD_3 : $\Delta=.375$, $p<.000$; CD_2 v. CD_3 : $\Delta=-.246$, $p<.009$). The sign of the difference for CD_2 v. CD_3 is somewhat contrary to expectations. Overall, however, the multiple comparisons tests provide more specific support highlighting the increasingly negative outcomes of lower to higher culture distance.

TABLE 5.4: HYPOTHESES RESULTS FOR REGRESSION					
$RQ = b_0 + b_xTXLEAD \left[\dots + b_xTFLEAD \dots \right] + \varepsilon$					
Criterion Variable = Relationship Quality (RQ)					
Predictor Variables	β	t	p	R ²	Adj. R ²
▪ TXLEAD	-.156	-1.790	.076	.024	.017
				Model Fit: F = 3.203; p<.076	
Predictor Variables	β	t	p	R ²	Adj. R ²
▪ TXLEAD	.009	.145	.885	.577	.571
▪ TFLEAD	.762	12.891	.000		
				Model Fit: F = 86.761; p<.000	
Tested Using General Linear Model and Least-Squares Regression					

Transformational Leadership and Relationship Quality

The hypothesis pertaining to transformational leadership and relationship quality is reiterated below and followed by results of the associated statistical tests:

H3: Transformational leadership styles are positively associated with relationship quality.

Support for this hypothesis would be demonstrated with a statistically significant multiple regression test. In addition, the correlation coefficient (β), t score, and p-value for transformational leadership (TFLEAD) would reflect the relative strength and significance of its relationship with relationship quality (RQ).

Statistical Results

Multiple regression using both transformational leadership (TFLEAD) and transactional leadership (TXLEAD) as predictors and relationship quality (RQ) as a criterion support H₃ (see Table 5.4). In the model, TFLEAD's standardized correlation coefficient is $\beta=.762$ ($p<.000$), exhibiting the predicted sign (direction) posited in H₃.

Transformational Leadership, Cultural Orientation, and Relationship Quality

The hypothesis pertaining to transformational leadership, cultural orientation, and relationship quality is reiterated below and followed by results of the associated statistical tests:

H4: Transformational leadership styles moderate the association between relational differences in cultural values and relationship quality. Specifically, as salespersons perceive their sales managers to be more transformational, differences in cultural values will have less impact on relationship quality.

Support for this hypothesis would be demonstrated with a statistically significant interaction term within a GLM analysis of variance. Specifically, an interactive effect

would be expected between transformational leadership (TFLEAD) and cultural distance (CD).

Statistical Results

Drawing from the initial MANCOVA in Table 5.3 (Pillai's Trace, $V = .390$, $F=13.949$, $p<.000$), statistical analysis shows an interaction effect between CD and TFLEAD. This interaction ($F=8.724$, $p<.000$) provided support for H_4 (Table 5.3), which hypothesized that TFLEAD moderates the relationship between CD and RQ.

Transformational Leadership and Relationship Effectiveness

The hypothesis pertaining to transformational leadership and relationship effectiveness is reiterated below and followed by results of the associated statistical tests:

H5: Transformational leadership styles are positively associated with relationship effectiveness.

Support for this hypothesis would be demonstrated with a statistically significant multiple regression test. In addition, the correlation coefficient (β), t score, and p-value for transformational leadership (TFLEAD) would reflect the relative strength and significance of its relationship with relationship effectiveness (RE).

Statistical Results

Multiple regression using both transformational leadership (TFLEAD) and transactional leadership (TXLEAD) as predictors and relationship effectiveness (RE) as a criterion supports H_5 (see Table 5.5). In the model, TFLEAD's standardized correlation coefficient is $\beta=.774$ ($p<.000$), exhibiting the predicted sign (direction) posited in H_5 .

TABLE 5.5: HYPOTHESES RESULTS FOR REGRESSION $RE = b_0 + b_xTXLEAD [\dots + b_xTFLEAD \dots] + \varepsilon$					
Criterion Variable = Relationship Effectiveness (RE)					
Predictor Variables	β	t	p	R ²	Adj. R ²
▪ TXLEAD	-.327	-3.909	.000	.107	.100
				Model Fit: F = 15.277; p<.000	
Predictor Variables	B	t	P	R ²	Adj. R ²
▪ TXLEAD	-.159	-3.083	.003	.678	.673
▪ TFLEAD	.774	15.003	.000	Model Fit: F = 133.565; p<.000	
Tested Using General Linear Model and Least-Squares Regression					

Transformational Leadership, Cultural Orientation, and Relationship Effectiveness

The hypothesis pertaining to transformational leadership, cultural orientation, and relationship effectiveness is reiterated below and followed by results of the associated statistical tests:

H6: Transformational leadership styles moderate the association between relational differences in cultural values and relationship effectiveness. Specifically, as salespersons perceive their sales managers to be more transformational, differences in cultural values will have less impact on relationship effectiveness.

Support for this hypothesis would be demonstrated with a statistically significant interaction term within a GLM analysis of variance. Specifically, an interactive effect would be expected between transformational leadership (TFLEAD) and cultural distance (CD).

Statistical Results

Drawing from the initial MANCOVA in Table 5.3 (Pillai's Trace, $V = .390$, $F=13.949$, $p<.000$), statistical analysis shows an interaction effect between CD and TFLEAD. This interaction ($F=8.724$, $p<.000$) provided support for H_4 (Table 5.3), which hypothesized that TFLEAD moderates the relationship between CD and RQ.

Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Relationship Quality

The hypotheses pertaining to transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and relationship quality are reiterated below and followed by results of the associated statistical tests:

H7: Transformational leadership styles, over transactional leadership styles, are more positively associated with relationship quality.

H8: Transformational leadership styles have an augmenting effect on transactional leadership styles in influencing relationship quality.

Support for these hypotheses would be demonstrated by a few outcomes, namely (1) a statistically significant multiple regression test, (2) a larger β -coefficient for transformational leadership (TFLEAD) versus transactional leadership (TXLEAD), and (3) a increase in the ΔR^2 for a stepwise regression in which TXLEAD is first regressed alone and then later with TFLEAD (Bass et al. 2003).

Statistical Results

Continuing from the above regression model (see Table 5.4), (i.e., $RQ = b_0 + b_1TXLEAD [\dots + b_1TFLEAD] + \varepsilon$), the *augmentation effect* of TFLEAD on TXLEAD as a predictor of RQ is also evident and supports H_7 and H_8 . Where both TXLEAD and TFLEAD are present in the model, the latter ($\beta=.762$, $t=12.891$, $p<.000$) demonstrates

a greater positive influence than the former ($\beta=.009$, $t=.145$, $p<.885$) as posited in H₇. Regressed on RQ alone, TXLEAD produces an R² of .024 (Adj. R²=.017, F=3.203, $p<.076$). Adding TFLEAD to the regression on RQ, produces a ΔR^2 of .553 (Δ Adj. R²=.054, F=166.187, $p<.000$), leading to a total R² of .577 (Adj. R²=.571, F=86.761, $p<.000$).

Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Relationship Effectiveness

The hypotheses pertaining to transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and relationship effectiveness are reiterated below and followed by results of the associated statistical tests:

H9: Transformational leadership styles, over transactional leadership styles, are more positively associated with relationship effectiveness.

H10: Transformational leadership styles have an augmenting effect on transactional leadership styles in influencing relationship effectiveness.

Support for these hypotheses would be demonstrated by a few outcomes, namely (1) a statistically significant multiple regression test, (2) a larger β -coefficient for transformational leadership (TFLEAD) versus transactional leadership (TXLEAD), and (3) a increase in the ΔR^2 for a stepwise regression in which TXLEAD is regressed alone and then with TFLEAD (Bass et al. 2003).

Statistical Results

Continuing from the above regression model (see Table 5.5), (i.e., $RE = b_0 + b_1TXLEAD + \dots + b_1TFLEAD + \epsilon$), the *augmentation effect* of TFLEAD on TXLEAD as a predictor of RE is also evident and supports H₉ and H₁₀. Where both TXLEAD and

TFLEAD are present in the model, the latter ($\beta=.774$, $t=15.003$, $p<.000$) demonstrates a greater positive influence than the former ($\beta=-.159$, $t=-3.083$, $p<.003$) as posited in H₉. Regressed on RE alone, TXLEAD produces an R² of .107 (Adj. R²=.100, F=15.277, $p<.000$). Adding TFLEAD to the regression on RE, produces a ΔR^2 of .571 (Δ Adj. R²=.573, F=225.104, $p<.000$), leading to a total R² of .678 (Adj. R²=.673, F=133.565, $p<.000$).

Bidirectional Communication and Relationship Quality

The hypothesis pertaining to bidirectional communication and relationship quality is reiterated below and followed by results of the associated statistical tests:

H11: Bidirectional communication is positively associated with relationship quality.

Support for this hypothesis would be demonstrated with a statistically significant ordinary least-squares regression test. In addition, the correlation coefficient (β), t score, and p-value of the predictor variable, bidirectional communication (COMM), would reflect the relative strength and significance of its association with relationship quality (RQ).

Statistical Results

The regression model provides support for H₁₁, which posited a positive association between bidirectional communication (BC) and relationship effectiveness (RE). In the model (R²=.032, Δ Adj. R²=.024, F=4.170, $p<.043$), BC's standardized correlation coefficient is $\beta=.178$ ($t=2.042$, $p<.043$), exhibiting the predicted sign posited in H₁₁.

TABLE 5.6: HYPOTHESES RESULTS FOR REGRESSION						
$RE = b_0 + b_1TXLEAD + b_2TFLEAD + b_3RQ + \varepsilon$						
Criterion Variable = Relationship Effectiveness (RE)						
Predictor Variables	B	t	p	R ²	Adj. R ²	
▪ TXLEAD	-.327	-3.909	.000	.107	.100	
				Model Fit: F = 15.277; p<.000		
Predictor Variables	B	t	P	R ²	Adj. R ²	
▪ TXLEAD	-.159	-3.083	.003	.678	.673	
▪ TFLEAD	.774	15.003	.000			
				Model Fit: F = 133.565; p<.000		
Predictor Variables	B	t	P	R ²	Adj. R ²	
▪ TXLEAD	-.164	-3.957	.003	.795	.790	
▪ TFLEAD	.373	5.942	.000			
▪ RQ	.526	8.480	.000			
				Model Fit: F = 162.730; p<.000		
Tested Using General Linear Model and Least-Squares Regression						

Relationship Quality and Relationship Effectiveness

The hypotheses pertaining to relationship quality and relationship effectiveness is reiterated below and followed by results of the associated statistical tests:

H12: Relationship quality is positively associated with relationship effectiveness.

Support for this hypothesis would be demonstrated with a statistically significant ordinary least squares regression test. In addition, the correlation coefficient (β), t score, and p-value of the predictor variable, relationship quality (RQ), would reflect the relative strength and significance of its association with relationship effectiveness (RE).

Statistical Results

Continuing from the above regression model (see Table 5.5), (i.e., $RE = b_0 + b_1TXLEAD + \dots + b_1TFLEAD + \dots + b_3RQ + \epsilon$), using transformational leadership (TFLEAD), transactional leadership (TXLEAD), and relationship quality (RQ) as predictors and relationship effectiveness (RE) as a criterion support H₁₂. In the model, RQ's standardized correlation coefficient is $\beta=.526$ ($t=8.480$, $p<.000$), exhibiting the predicted sign (direction) posited in H₁₂. In addition, RQ contributed a ΔR^2 of .117 ($\Delta Adj. R^2=.117$, $F=71.910$, $p<.000$), leading to a total R^2 of .795 ($Adj. R^2=.790$, $F=162.730$, $p<.000$).

Overall, the empirical findings reported support the body of hypotheses presented in Chapter Three. Means separation tests following the MANCOVA indicated a possible nontransitive group effect for cultural distance (CD); however, the integrity of the hypotheses on culture remained intact.

Chapter Summary

Chapter Five presented detailed empirical results of the statistical tests of all hypothesized relationships between cultural differences, leadership styles, communication, relationship quality, and relationship effectiveness. The chapter began with a reiteration of the research hypotheses in mathematical form and provided a brief review of the statistical procedures used to assess the hypotheses. It then continued with a discussion of multicollinearity and its importance within this multivariate, cross-sectional, and correlational research. Then, it provided a review of the bivariate correlations that exist between the research constructs. Following these preliminary issues, the chapter provided the empirical results yielded from a series of statistical tests applied to all hypothesized relationships within the dissertation's research model.

Chapter Six will provide interpretations of the empirical results associated with each statistically evaluated research hypothesis. In addition, it will address various contributions, limitations, and managerial implications of this research.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Chapter Six provides a review and interpretation of the empirical research findings produced in Chapter Five. The first section presents a discussion of the findings. Based on these research findings, several implications for sales management are noted in the second section. The third section outlines the research contributions made by this dissertation to the theory and thought of organizational science, marketing, sales, and leadership disciplines. The fourth section cites some methodological and theoretical limitations of this research. The fifth section imparts some suggestions for future research in related areas of the above disciplines. The sixth section closes with some conclusions of the research performed in the dissertation.

Discussion

“One does not ‘manage’ people. The task is to lead people. And the goal is to make productive the specific strengths and knowledge of each individual.” (Peter Drucker - inspired by Frederick W. Taylor, 2001)

This dissertation is essentially concerned with whether and how personal and relational factors combine to affect the ways in which sales managers and their salespersons interact. Ultimately, it focuses on how individual differences, stated in terms of culture, and leadership styles can be associated with the quality and effectiveness of sales manager-salesperson relationship dyads. Rather than advancing an ethos of “right versus wrong” relationship management, this dissertation asserts the

validity of one characterized by “more effective versus less effective” relationship management.

“Leadership does matter, of course. Leadership is a means. Leadership to what end is thus the crucial question.” (Peter Drucker 2001, p.268)

The empirical research findings suggest that, in the context of sales manager-salesperson relationship dyads, less versus more cultural distance is more effective in producing greater relationship quality and relationship effectiveness. In addition, it has been demonstrated that different leadership styles are effectively different in their outcomes. Transformational leadership exhibited a positive association with both relationship quality and relationship effectiveness. Moreover, its purportedly positive, greater, and augmenting effects over transactional leadership were supported as well. And, its ability to moderate the influence of cultural distance on relationship quality and effectiveness were supported as well. Each of these findings were summarily consistent with Bass et al. (2003), Bass and Avolio (2000, 1995), and others.

Research Contributions

Academic Implications

"No matter how hard man tries, it is impossible for him to divest himself of his own culture, for it has penetrated to the roots of his nervous system and determines how he perceives the world ... people cannot act or interact in any meaningful way except through the medium of culture" (Hall 1966, p.177).

This dissertation contributes to scholarly research by developing a framework for understanding how both culture and leadership operate between sales managers and salespersons. It also advances current knowledge on culture by operationalizing the concept at the level of the individual rather than at the traditional aggregated or macro

level as it has been considered in much of the extant literature. In addition, it reignites some practical interest in the transformational versus transactional paradigms in leadership by developing research propositions that consider their dual roles in affecting dyadic relationships and their outcomes amidst individual differences (e.g., cultural distance). This research carefully integrates both culture and leadership to help scholars understand how both concepts are relevant to relationship management and outcomes in sales manager and salesperson dyads.

Notably, this dissertation delivers on an effort to validate the relevance and importance of the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne 1971) within vertically oriented dyadic relationships. Examining the concept of culture with respect to the similarity-attraction paradigm provides a useful response to the call by Jackson et al. (1994) stating that “a comprehensive examination of culture in a sales force context is needed” (p. 2). To this point, the dissertation also validates its initial threefold premise regarding the importance of culture in accord with the similar attraction paradigm. That premise suggested that culture plays a particularly relevant role within the domain of employee relationship dyads within the sales organization because (1) individuals exhibit differences in culture -- values, beliefs, and attitudes with respect to themselves and their environment; (2) these differences can be observed and tabulated, and (3) observed differences in culture can yield significant influence on the behavior of employees within the sales organization.

Managerial Implications

Following the thrust of the academic implications, sales managers should be driven to take more interest in understanding the importance of individual differences in sales manager and salesperson relationship dyads. As asserted in this dissertation, these individual differences should be considered on at least bases. First, the vividness of such differences can be more intelligible using individual-level measures rather than association-by-group membership measures. Certainly, it has been shown here that common, simple methods of deductively stereotyping the cultural values of individuals, based on their membership to some larger group, could be very misleading. Likewise, the fact such differences do exist among individuals in the same country suggests that more sincere regard must be given to learning about the unique qualities of individuals as opposed to profiling them according to oversimplified common characteristics. Second, the impact of such differences can be mitigated, or even augmented, by the leadership styles exuded by sales managers. Alternatively stated, sales managers should note the evidence that they can indeed minimize some anticipated negative influences of interpersonal differences.

Furthermore, the present research has demonstrated that firms may create more amenable relationship environments within sales organizations by encouraging more transformational than transactional leadership styles. As training tends to be a common method for firms to prepare their managers to achieve more organizational productivity, some version of leadership sensitivity training might be instrumental in helping sales managers yield more productive performance (e.g., extra effort) from their reporting salespersons.

The present study has aptly shown that cultural distance does have potentially negative influences on the relationship quality of sales manager and salesperson dyads. And, though matched gender in such relationships was not specifically examined, it also demonstrates an ability to affect relationship quality and effectiveness. Consequently, this evidence should motivate, if not encourage, managers to be more sensitive to the interpersonal and performance implications yielded by individual level differences.

Limitations of the Research

This dissertation could be characterized as an early step towards integrating salient aspects of knowledge and theory in culture, management, sales, and leadership to better understand sales manager and salesperson relationship dyads. While the majority of its findings are rather encouraging, some notable weaknesses and shortcomings are present. In light of these limitations, the findings should be regarded with some according vigilance when considering their interpretations and implications. These limitations are acknowledged below; however, they are not necessarily presented with respect to order of importance or significance.

The first limitation pertains to the cross-sectional, correlational research design. Given that the dissertation examines the nature of relationships between business employees, it should ideally allow for collecting data over a more expansive range of time. This consideration would perhaps enable the detection of the growing pains, shakeout periods, and so forth that generally characterize relationships between individuals.

The second limitation can be associated with the use of a convenience sample in the personal consumer products business to gather the research. Such a sample could be

said to compromise some generalizability of research findings and consequent interpretations. As a result, these findings arguably may not be fully applicable to sales personnel across industries. However, given the challenge of fulfilling the dyadic requirement of the study with limited time, financial budget, and other elusive resources, this limitation does not consign the dissertation to resign its overall aims, achievements, or contributions. As is customary, other researchers would be encouraged to attempt replications of this study's findings using different samples, industries, and so on.

The third limitation concerns the statistical analysis. This dissertation does implement an appropriate mix of data analytic techniques to assess the twelve research hypotheses. However, its highly integrated synthesis suggests that more rigorous multivariate techniques, such as structural equations modeling (e.g., linear structural equations modeling (LISREL) or analysis of moment structures (AMOS)), might provide more insight into the direct, indirect, hierarchical, and other relationships between the observed research variables.

The fourth limitation regards the communication variable. While it was not an integral empirical aspect of this dissertation, it was included due to its clear relevance to the quality of interpersonal relationships (Hall 1976). Admittedly, the measure used in the present study was somewhat vulnerable, since it relied on a single item (i.e., bidirectional communication). As Mohr and Nevin (1989) noted, researchers have been challenged to discover or develop effective measures that appropriately tap intraorganizational communication. This task may be even more challenging when trying to understand it at the individual level.

While more studies aim at validating this dissertation's research findings could preemptively resolve or mitigate the above limitations, some suggestions for future research are presented in the following section.

Suggestions for Future Research

This research bears many tentacles that ultimately share in common their service of body (e.g., the sales organization). It has demonstrated that culture, leadership, and communication have differential, albeit important, associations with the quality and effectiveness of sales manager and salesperson relationships.

Clearly, the integrated framework has promise for helping firms understand how management can improve their inner assets. In the vein, future research should consider some of the following suggestions.

First, the resource-based view of competition (Wernerfelt 1984) has received little to no attention in the sales literature. Researchers should investigate leadership styles as competitive resources among sales managers in firm within and across industries. In addition, they should give similar consideration to the degree of cultural assets within the firm. The cultural assets could have myriad bases, such as similarity, prevalence of a particular dimension(s) of cultural orientation, and so on. Culture would be a reasonable factor for understanding the resource-based view of the firm given its conformity to the Wernerfelt (1984) definition thereof:

By a resource is meant anything, which could be thought of as a strength or weakness of a given firm. More formally, a firm's resources at a given time could be defined as those (tangible and intangible) assets which are tied semi-permanently to the firm (p 172).

Also, given the battery of threats to the firm's bottom line objectives, firms need to understand how internal assets, such as cultural similarity, relationship quality, and relationship effectiveness help firms compete against one another. The intersection of these three factors is critical. While many firms can expect to have some degree of gender, ethnic, and lifestyle diversity in their sales ranks, their management must be able to attune that diversity into harmonious performance, which could consequently produce better unit sales, revenue, and profits. Hence, the recommended research could also focus on the relevance and performance of resource-specific assets (e.g., leadership, culture) within different phases of economic prosperity or stages of market development.

Second, it might be fruitful to consider the role of expectancy theory (see Tyagi 1982, 1985; Vroom 1964; Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick 1978) in this integrated model. Some insights may be gleaned from learning whether sales employees temper or augment certain relationship evaluations and behaviors according to how they perceive the instrumentality and valence of cultural orientations, cultural similarity, and leadership styles. This recommendation implies that salespersons may associate certain utilities with the circumstances of their relationships with sales managers.

Third, some study should be given to ascertain and scrutinize associations between sales managers' cultural orientations and their enacted leadership styles. In addition, such a study could be integrated into the resource-based view recommended above (Wernerfelt 1984).

Fourth, some study should be given to understanding how salespersons perceive and prefer different types and levels of transformational and transactional leadership

styles. Such research could be also conducted within an expectancy-valence-instrumentality framework (Vroom 1964; Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick 1978).

Given the fact that relationship can often improve as a result of longer tenure and/or increased interpersonal interaction, the above recommendation for future research would be ideally performed within a longitudinal context.

Conclusions

This dissertation set out to examine whether and to what extent culture and leadership styles affect relationships between sales managers and their reporting salespersons. Despite the importance of sales personnel and sale functions, effectively no focus has been given to understanding how pervasive, immutable, and exuding aspects of individual-level characteristics (i.e., culture and leadership) actually impact the superior-subordinate interactions between employees in the sales organization.

The present study reflects an effort to empirically assess whether culture and leadership actually matter in relationships between sales managers and salespersons. It embodies an attempt to advance current knowledge about culture and leadership in the sales organization and, more specifically, in the sales manager-salesperson relationship dyad. Having developed a unique integrated framework of culture, leadership, relationship, quality, and relationship effectiveness, this dissertation has afforded business scholars and practitioners alike some additional vantages for understanding individual-level differences and responses thereto.

The integrated literature review (e.g., culture, management, sales, and leadership), methodology (e.g., dyadic bases), twelve research hypotheses, and statistical tests combined to support the aims and achievements outlined above. Within the

context of a cross-sectional, correlational research design, the twelve research hypotheses were tested empirically on data taken from a sample of sales employees in the personal consumer products business. The results of the investigation, based on a careful combination of the General Linear Model (GLM), multivariate analysis of (co)variance (MANCOVA), and multiple linear regression, provided considerable support for the summary propositions, namely that (1) cultural distance and leadership style are important factors in influencing the quality and effectiveness of relationships between in sales managers and salespersons relationship dyads and (2) transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership in affecting the same.

In conclusion, it is recommended that the findings of this dissertation be regarded as incrementally constructive evidence to support the notions that (1) sales manager and salesperson relationship dyads are worthy of more scholarly research, (2) individual-manifestations of cultural orientation can be instrumental in learning how sales employees perceive and interact with one another, and (3) culture and leadership are important factors in producing quality and effective relationships. Of course, these findings, like those of other early integrated studies, should be accepted somewhat tentatively until they are replicated by future studies.

Chapter Summary

Chapter Six presented the major findings and interpretations of the empirical research embodied in this dissertation. It began with a review of the statistical results reported in Chapter Five. This review was followed by managerial implications for sales managers and other senior management. The contributions made to current knowledge in the organizational sciences, marketing, sales, and leadership literatures

were discussed next. The chapter continued with a discussion of some limitations witnessed in this current research and proceeded to express worthwhile directions for future research on relationship dyads within marketing and sales organizations. The chapter closed with a summary of general conclusions about this dissertation.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: COVER LETTER

[PERSONAL ADDRESS LISTED HERE]

SALES ORGANIZATION SURVEY

Dear Sales Professional:

We are conducting a study as part of an ongoing academic research project on sales organizations within commercial firms. The purpose of this particular study is to develop our understanding of how sales managers and reporting sales employees interact with one another in the work context.

By participating in this study, you will make a tremendous contribution to advancing knowledge in the marketing field. Since few organizations are being surveyed, your participation is essential to our success. We can assure you that all information provided by you and your fellow employees will be **guarded in strict confidence**. **Any personal information will be encoded to maintain your total anonymity.**

Please spare about 10-12 minutes of your time to complete the survey(s) provided. At your request, we will provide you with an **executive summary and findings** based on the research.

We ask that you **answer all questions** and return the completed survey to us by postal mail within **10 days** using the address below:

[PERSONAL ADDRESS LISTED HERE]

Thank you in advance for your support. It is most graciously appreciated.

Sincerely,

Brent A. Smith, ABD
Doctoral Student of Marketing
Drexel University
Philadelphia, PA
(215) 878-6344

Trina Larsen Andras, Ph.D.
Professor of Marketing
Drexel University
Philadelphia, PA

APPENDIX B: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SALES MANAGERS

SM - ABOUT YOUR PERSONAL ORIENTATION	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I am expected to do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Rules and regulations are important to me because they inform me of what is expected of me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Standardized work procedures are helpful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Instructions and operations are important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group (either at school or the workplace).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SM - ABOUT YOUR PERSONAL ORIENTATION (cont'd)	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Group success is more important than individual success.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Individuals should only pursue their goals after consider the welfare of the group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. I believe in careful money management (Thrift).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. I believe in going on resolutely in spite of opposition (Persistence).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. I believe in personal steadiness and stability.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. I believe in long-term planning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. I believe in giving up today's fun for success in the future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. I believe in working hard for success in the future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Solving difficult problems usually requires an active, forcible approach, which is typical of men.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. There are some jobs that which a man can always do better than a woman.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SM - A LITTLE BIT ABOUT YOU**Fill-In or Circle Responses As Appropriate**

- | | | | | |
|---|---|------------|-------------------|--------|
| 1. Job title | _____ | Gender | Male | Female |
| | — | | | |
| 2. Total work experience | _____ | Birth date | ___ / ___ / 19___ | |
| | — | | | |
| 3. Total work experience with current firm | _____ | Age | _____ | |
| | — | | — | |
| 4. Highest level of education completed | High School College, 2-Yr College, 4-Yr Master's
Doctorate | | | |
| 5. Your Name (Required for matching and deleted at data entry.) | _____ (Please do not omit.) | | | |

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

PLEASE RETURN YOUR COMPLETED SURVEY VIA STANDARD POSTAL MAIL TO:

[PERSONAL ADDRESS LISTED HERE]

APPENDIX C: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SALESPERSONS

SE - ABOUT YOUR PERSONAL ORIENTATION	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I am expected to do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Rules and regulations are important to me because they inform me of what is expected of me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Standardized work procedures are helpful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Instructions and operations are important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group (either at school or the workplace).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SE - ABOUT YOUR PERSONAL ORIENTATION (cont'd)	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
14. Group success is more important than individual success.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Individuals should only pursue their goals after consider the welfare of the group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. I believe in careful money management (Thrift)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. I believe in going on resolutely in spite of opposition (Persistence).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. I believe in personal steadiness and stability.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. I believe in long-term planning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. I believe in giving up today's fun for success in the future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. I believe in working hard for success in the future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Solving difficult problems usually requires an active, forcible approach, which is typical of men.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. There are some jobs that which a man can always do better than a woman.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SE - ABOUT RELATIONSHIP W/ YOUR MANAGER	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My superior is frank (honest) in dealing with me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SE - ABOUT RELATIONSHIP W/ YOUR MANAGER (cont'd)	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
2. Promises made by my superior are reliable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. My superior is knowledgeable about his/her reporting people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. My superior has problems understanding my role and position in this organization. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. My superior does not make false claims.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. My superior is not open in dealing with me. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. My superior has problems answering my questions. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. My superior would make sacrifices for me, if necessary.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. My superior is concerned about the welfare of my person and career.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. In times of trouble or threat, my superior would go out on a limb for me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. My superior is (almost) like a friend.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I feel my superior has been on my side.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. I (would) defend my superior when others (e.g., peers and outsiders) criticize her/him.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. I am continually on the lookout for another job or work with another department. (R)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. If another employer offered us better compensation, I would most certainly join their organization.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. I am (willing to be) patient with my superior when (s)he makes mistakes that cause me trouble.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. I am willing to dedicate whatever time, effort, and resources it takes to achieve my superior's sales objectives.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SE - ABOUT RELATIONSHIP W/ YOUR MANAGER (cont'd)		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree					
18.	No matter who is at fault, we work together to find solutions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>					
19.	I am concerned about my superior's organizational objectives.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>					
20.	My superior does not take advantage of her/his strong bargaining position.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>					
21.	We are usually willing to make cooperative changes when necessary (e.g., overtime, time off).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>					
22.	We generally work together to be successful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>					
23.	We do not mind owing each other favors.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>					
24.	Overall, how satisfied are you with this relationship?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>					
25.	How satisfied do you think your superior is with her/his relationship with you?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>					
26.	How satisfied do you think your superior is with your performance?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>					
SE - COMMUNICATION WITH YOUR MANAGER		Circle One Percentage Value Below									
1.	Of the contact you have had with your manager, what percentage has been initiated by you?	0% 90%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	100%

SE - A LITTLE BIT ABOUT YOU	Fill-In <u>or</u> Circle Responses As Appropriate
1. Job title	_____ Gender Male Female
2. Total work experience	_____ Birth date ____ / ____ / 19____
3. Total work experience with current firm	_____ Age _____
4. Highest level of education completed	High School College, 2-Yr College, 4-Yr Master's Doctorate
5. Your Manager's Name (Required for matching and deleted at data entry.)	_____ (Please do not omit.)

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

PLEASE RETURN YOUR COMPLETED SURVEY VIA STANDARD POSTAL MAIL TO:

[PERSONAL ADDRESS LISTED HERE]

VITA

Brent A. Smith

Doctor of Philosophy

Drexel University Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 1997 — 2004
 Bennett S. LeBow College of Business
 Primary Field: Marketing Secondary Field: Organization and Strategy

Master of Business Administration

Tulane University New Orleans, Louisiana 1995 — 1997
 A. B. Freeman School of Business
 Major Areas: Marketing and Entrepreneurship

Bachelor of Science

Xavier University of Louisiana New Orleans, Louisiana 1991 — 1996
 Major Area: Economics Minor Area: Business Administration

Bachelor of Arts

Xavier University of Louisiana New Orleans, Louisiana 1991 — 1996
 Major Area: German

International Education

University of Westminster London, England Autumn 1994
 European Community Economics, Politics, and Diplomacy

Eberhard-Karls Universität Tübingen Tübingen, Germany 1993 — 94
 German Culture, History, Language, News Media, and Politics

Leopold-Franzens Universität Innsbruck Innsbruck, Austria Summer 1993
 Intensive German Language Studies

